The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 14, 1903.

The Week.

The extraordinary turning of Democratic sympathies to Mr. Cleveland is a fine tribute to character. It shows that such solid parts and services as his can not be permanently obscured by a storm of calumny and detraction. All that he has had to do has been to wait quietly for the whirligig of time to bring him its revenges. Where all was execration, all is now acclaim. It is a kind of foretaste of the way in which history makes the scales swing even, that few buffeted men have been permitted to enjoy in their lifetime. Mr. Cleveland is entitled to take thorough satisfaction in the inclining to him again of his party's thoughts and hopes. Beyond its personal significance, there is cause for gratification in a great political organization showing signs of returning sanity. It has been running after false gods. It has been filling its belly with the east wind. Now it is beginning ruefully to pull itself together, to think that it might be just as well to try to win the country's confidence once more, and to cast about for a real leader. It is not strange that there should be mention of the name which was so long a tower of strength and a symbol of victory. But as for the actual nomination of Mr. Cleveland for the Presidency next year, that is a matter, we presume, about which his serene philosophy is not at all disturbed. Under the circumstances, it is something which neither he nor his friends can take very seriously.

Mr. Perry Heath's explanation of the postal scandals does not stop with his belief in ex-Postmaster-General Smith's kindly desire to help out his friends. That there were irregularities in the Department during the war with Spain he freely admits, saying they had the sanction of an Assistant Attorney-General, the Comptroller of the Treasury, and of the entire Cabinet. There being no money in any class of departmental funds specially set aside for the enormous task of supplying 275,000 soldiers in dozens—if not hundreds—of camps with mail matter, Mr. Smith was forced to draw upon funds appropriated for other purposes. But Mr. Heath gives us his word that the idea of funds being appropriated for private use is "utterly silly." Unfortunately, he stops there. He has nothing further to say about the irregularities in appointments and promotions, and in the many other ways which are daily being exposed. About these irregularities the public is just now very anxious to be informed, and is likely to grow more inquisitive as election time draws near. Until other reasons are forthcoming, there will be a general belief that the kind of politics for which Mr. Heath is noteworthy may have had considerable to do with bringing about the disordered and scandalous conditions with which Mr. Payne is now struggling.

The case of John C. Algood, the colored letter carrier at Gallatin, Tenn., is a more aggravated one than that of the colored postmistress at Indianola, Miss. Algood was selected for his place in the rural free delivery service under the rules and requirements of the civil-service law, upon the declination of the white man who outranked him in the competition. He owes his appointment not to favor, but to merit; his color being unknown. The Post-Office Department exercised no option in the matter, but merely confirmed what the law awarded. On Thursday, while performing his duties, he was "held up" by a band of masked men, and ordered to desist from his work of delivering letters; at the same time, not to divulge the cause of his resigning his place, but to assign false reasons. This is the approved Ku-klux method of vindicating the superiority of the white race in some parts of the South. We presume that this step is not approved by the intelligent and self-respecting people of Gallatin and the vicinity, but whether it is or not, they will have to pay the penalty for it, in the suspension of rural free delivery if need be.

There are several points of view from which the remarkable rise in cotton prices may be regarded. In so far as the fixing of this week's high price—the highest for the period in thirteen years—is a speculative operation, it is much to be regretted. Even if speculation were really a minor influence, so high a price will, if long maintained, have two unfortunate results—to check our export trade in cotton, and to derange the plans of the cotton-goods manufacturers. On the other hand, the Southern producer naturally feels much the same elation as did the Western wheat grower in the great rise of 1898, and there can be no doubt, the cotton crop being by no means disastrously "short," that the wealth of the Southern section of the United States will be greatly enhanced by the good price commanded by the staple. Briefly, it may be said that the general average rise in cotton prices, during the past four years, has resulted more largely from increasing consumption of the article than from deficient crops. The American crop now marketing is apparently under the average of the past five years, but it is very much larger than any cotton crop harvested up to 1898. In the same five years, however, annual consumption of cotton in the United States has increased over a million bales, or nearly 40 per cent., while the world's consumers, as a whole, are estimated to have increased their purchases by two million bales. How far this increased consumption would be arrested by exorbitant prices for the staple, and for the goods manufactured from it, is another question.

The Finance Minister of Mexico, Mr. Limantour, has been in New York several days on business of importance to his Government. It is understood that the subject of the monetary standard of Mexico is one of his chief concerns, and that he will extend his journey to Europe on that account. The *Times* publishes what purports to be an outline of his policy. According to this, it is proposed to demonetize the existing Mexican silver dollar and coin a new silver dollar to the amount of $100,000,000. Of course, it is to be coined on Government account solely, since the coinage of bullion for private persons could not be restricted in quantity. Such restriction of coinage is the demonetization of silver, the first step toward the gold standard, and is perfectly scientific. It is the initial step that was taken by India, Japan, Austria, Russia, and, farther back, by the members of the Latin Union. We observe, however, in the *Times's* statement, some hesitancy in acknowledging that this is a gold-standard policy. Mr. Limantour may easily be pardoned for not desiring to awaken fears at home of a radical proceeding. There will be real difficulties enough to encounter without exciting imaginary ones—the difficulty, for example, of dealing with the Mexican dollars circulating in other parts of the world. These it is proposed to treat as merchandise, and to admit as imports only at a high rate of duty. That is both right and necessary if the plan is to be carried into effect. The new Mexican dollars are to be legal tender for 50 cents each, and are to be kept at par with gold on that basis by a redemption fund of $25,000,000 gold in the Treasury. Presumably, the silver bullion to coin the new dollars will be obtained by exchange for the old ones now circulating in Mexico—the latter to be received at their market value. The $25,000,000 gold for redemption purposes would probably be obtained by a loan, for which the credit of Mexico would be ample.

The United States has undoubtedly a case for diplomatic protest to Russia, if

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we care to press it. But it is equally undoubted that we shall do so with extraordinary ill grace. As a virtuous champion of the open door of trade, this country is calculated to leave all the Pecksniffs and Tartuffes of history far behind. We take Porto Rico and Hawaii, and shut them up as tight as a drum. So far as the Senate could, it tied up the Cuban trade as exclusively our own. In the Philippines, we gave the world as solemn a promise of the open door as ever Russia did in Mantchuria, and then proceeded shamelessly to violate it by trick and artifice. The Russian Foreign Office might well, if it chose, give Mr. Hay a crushing *tu quoque*. Still, as we say, there is ground for reclamation if we choose to press forward with all our inconsistencies thick upon us. Russia is formally committed to us. We may, therefore, join with England and Japan in a common note of protest. That can do no harm, and it may do good. Very likely it will bring fresh assurances from Russia, fully as valuable as those she has before given. But as for the notion of anything further, an alliance with Japan and England, or in the background a threat of war—all that is a counsel of lunacy. There is no lawful way for the Administration to ally us, of its own motion, with any foreign Power, and it would be madness to do it if there were. We can blunder into enough wars by ourselves without being dragged into one by the folly of an ally. The President will greatly misjudge the situation and misrepresent and wrong the country if he countenances any step, in this Mantchurian business, going beyond the resources of peaceful diplomacy.

It is easy to believe that the rising note of trades-union arrogance is seriously disturbing many captains of industry in the West. Some of them are openly saying that it is the greatest threat to the continuance of our industrial and commercial prosperity. The notions which thousands of agitator-driven workingmen are getting about the possibility of indefinite increases in wages and shortening of hours, are bound to lead to a bitter awakening some day. Western business men are said to have approached the President on his travels and besought him to utter some word in public against the mad extremes of labor unions. There is the more force in this appeal, in that the extravagant hopes of the agitators are based in part upon Mr. Roosevelt's speech of last summer, announcing his sympathy with organized labor, and especially upon the aid and comfort which his course gave to the striking miners last October. Such a result was predicted at the time. Indeed, it is only human nature that labor leaders should point to the report of the Strike Commission as a warrant for their propaganda and their methods. All the more reason for the President's choosing an early occasion, as he is urged by the Western men, to speak a sober word of warning on this subject.

Gov. Yates of Illinois is hesitating over the bill authorizing municipal ownership of street railways, but the vote by which the measure passed the Legislature makes its enactment certain, even if it has to be over an executive veto. The act is general in its nature, and will put street transit in every city in Illinois within popular control. It empowers cities to own, acquire, construct, maintain, and, if desired, to operate street car lines within their corporate limits. If municipal operation is not desired, a city may lease the lines, but only for a period of twenty years or less. The act does not become operative in any city until submitted to the voters and accepted by a majority. Before the city can purchase or build street-car lines, the financial project must be submitted and endorsed by three-fifths of the votes cast, or, if a bond issue is involved, by two-thirds. The bill contains no details as to fares. It is the outcome of the long fight over the renewal of the street-car franchises in Chicago, productive of so many scandals in the Legislature and the City Council. The Voters' League has purged the Council until it is representative of the most enlightened public spirit in Chicago, and the Legislature has now been compelled to render franchise-grabbing impossible.

Figues showing this city's income through its bureau of licenses during the first four months of this year tell an interesting story. For the first four months of 1901, the last year of Tammany administration, the total receipts of the Bureau of Licenses were $33,300. For the same period of the present year the receipts were $61,392, or almost double. Similar results are shown in the comparative figures for the first eight days of May, a period during which an unusual number of licenses is always applied for. The receipts for these eight days in 1901 were $12,217; this year $18,136. The explanation of these increases is that the pushcart vendors are now paying the city the fees required by law, and are thus securing for themselves the right to conduct their business, under proper restrictions, unmolested by the blackmailers to whom they formerly fell ready victims. Under the Tammany system, the vendors paid to the police and to district politicians far more than they now pay to the city, and the city, meanwhile, was robbed of its just revenues. It is said that until the present system was instituted, many of the vendors were ignorant of the existence of legal licenses, supposing that to bribe the police was the only way to secure an opportunity to ply their trade.

Baltimore must now be reckoned among cities where independent bodies of citizens devoted to the public welfare hold a balance of power in the elections. This result is clearly indicated in the election held on May 6. McLane, the Democratic candidate, who appears to have been victorious by the small margin of a few hundred votes, is described as an independent, public-spirited man, whose nomination was forced upon the Rasin machine by the better element in the party. Ex-Congressman Wachter, the Republican candidate, was nominated after a brisk primary contest with a candidate of the machine of his party. For this reason, the independent element was somewhat divided. It is certain, from the closeness of the result, that if the issue had been squarely presented between an unfit "ring" candidate on the one side and such a man as either McLane or Wachter on the other, the ring candidate would have been overwhelmed. The city is, of course, nominally Democratic by a large majority.

Further light on the direct nominations law, just placed on the statute-books of New Jersey, adds to the interest with which students of primary reform will watch the experiment. The authors of the New Jersey law have departed from the general scheme of direct nominations to the extent of attempting to preserve the convention, though preventing the manipulation of delegates by the bosses. Under the law, candidates for places as delegates to conventions are to announce themselves substantially as provided for candidates for elective offices. Their names are placed on an official ballot, printed at the expense and under the direction of the State; and, if he so wishes, the candidate for delegate may have printed opposite his name on the primary ballot the name of the person for whom he intends to vote in the convention. The authors of the law believe that under these provisions the actual contests between rival candidates for nominations will take place in the primary rather than in the convention, the latter becoming useful chiefly for the purpose of adopting a party platform and formally recording the decision of the primaries.

What's in a name? How does it happen that Lawyer Boardman of the firm of Boardman & Platt is retained by the Rapid Transit Commission and also by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company? The Commission and the railroad company represent opposing interests, in the sense that the latter is presumed to get all the privileges it can for its tunnel at the lowest possible cost to itself, while the former is bound to maintain a jealous care for the public interests, and undoubtedly does so. At the meeting of the Rapid Transit Board on

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Thursday the peculiar position of Mr. Boardman as counsel for both sides was brought up in the form of a resolution approving of the same, and a communication was read from Mr. Henry George, jr., criticising the lawyer for acting as an adviser of the corporation, and at the same time as an attorney of the Commission at a salary of $10,000. Mr. Boardman, as reported in a morning newspaper, said in reply:

"When the Pennsylvania Company called on me to act in an advisory capacity, I called on you, Mr. Orr, and asked if you saw any impropriety in my so acting. You said you did not, and I asked to be released from any duties relating to the Pennsylvania franchise. I did not represent the Pennsylvania Company in its dealings with this Board."

Notwithstanding the apparent incongruity of Mr. Boardman's position, it can all be explained if we assume that his services to the Rapid Transit Commission are only nominal, that the real law business is done by somebody else, that he only lends a name to the enterprise, and that that name is Platt.

The *Evening Post* was, it appears, misled by its Havana informant in the matter of the alleged connection between Gen. Wood as inspirer, and Lieutenant Runcie as writer, of the *North American Review* article of January, 1900, on which we commented last week. Nor can that journal substantiate its other authority on which it placed reliance. We have, therefore, unwittingly given currency to a charge against Gen. Wood which must be pronounced baseless; and this we much regret.

In offering at par, on Thursday, a 3 per cent. loan for purposes of Transvaal reconstruction, the British Government has fixed a lower price—having regard to the higher interest rate—than has been allowed in any of its preceding loan issues of the Boer war period. This fact has evoked criticism in some foreign newspapers, which seem to have expected that, with return of peace, the rate at which the Exchequer could borrow ought at once to grow more favorable. But such criticism overlooks the fact that the price at which public securities can be placed depends, not merely on the position of the borrowing government, but on the question whether its borrowings are at an end or not. Return of peace very commonly means suspension of borrowing by the successful belligerent. If so, the price of its outstanding bonds might reasonably advance. But if the Government straightway finds it necessary to go on with its borrowing operations, the principle of supply and demand is at work again in the market for its securities. The £35,000,000 loan announced by the British Government last week, though not in form a British loan, nevertheless carries that Government's guarantee, and adds to the supply of securities pressing on the market for British funds. It need not be surprising, therefore, that, in order to place the loan satisfactorily, larger inducements than before had to be offered. Our own country's experience of a generation ago is a case in point. When Lee surrendered, in April, 1865, United States 6 per cents sold above 110. They fell to 105 before the year was over, and did not again reach their best price of the war-time until 1868. The slow process of real absorption of the war-bond issues explained that phenomenon, as it does the present low price of the Transvaal loan.

The duty on corn (*i. e.*, the bread tax) in the list of British war taxes was imposed at the instance of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach with reluctance and in the face of strong opposition. The new Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Ritchie, now proposes its repeal, and the opposition to this step is more clamorous, if not stronger, than that faced by Sir Michael three years ago. The Chambers of Agriculture demand its retention as a matter of protection to themselves. They hold the same position and use the same arguments as the Agrarian party in Germany; but they have no chance of success. It is impossible that England should restore the corn laws permanently without applying the same principle to other industries. To do the latter would be to turn her whole fiscal system bottom upward. No Chancellor of the Exchequer could form an estimate of his revenues under such a change. No political party could survive the storms that would sweep the hustings under a protective policy. It may be assumed, therefore, that Mr. Ritchie will take no step backward. In the debate in the House on April 23 he said that he was prepared to remit existing taxes to the amount of £10,500,000, of which £2,000,000 would be the bread tax. He expected that the latter remission would ultimately be £2,500,000.

Of course, the Liberals concur in this policy, but they hold that Mr. Ritchie does not go far enough in the reduction of indirect taxes. His budget proposes to remit £8,500,000 from the income tax. In other words, the consumers, who compose the bulk of the population, get only one-fifth of the reduction, while the well-to-do classes get four-fifths. On this statement of facts, Sir William Harcourt made a very strong speech. His remarks were not at all of the *ad captandum* sort, although he could not avoid alluding to the contention of Mr. Balfour, at the time when the bread tax was enacted, that it would not be felt by the working classes. The contention of the Ministry now is that it should be repealed as a relief to the working classes. Sir William maintained that, in the lightening of tax burdens, not merely one-fifth, but at least one-half, should be on articles consumed by all classes, tea and sugar being named as examples. Then he gave the House a sober review of England's position in the world, and what the continuance and maintenance implies. He playfully accepted for himself the title of a Little Englander, if it meant a person who objects to new enterprises and entangling alliances in various parts of the world which are bringing new responsibilities and new burdens upon a people already overtaxed. "You perorate about the Empire," he said, "but it is not the Empire that pays; it is Little England that pays." What does Australia pay for the support of the Empire? What does Canada pay? What does South Africa pay? Mr. Chamberlain had visited the latter country, and had obtained the privilege of guaranteeing a loan of £35,000,000 to repair in part the ravages of the war in the Transvaal; but that, the speaker believed, was only the first instalment. In conclusion, he expressed the opinion that England could not continue adding £5,500,000 per year to her ordinary expenditures as had been her habit of late, both in war and in peace.

Recent changes in the British navy will arouse much interest in this country because, as far as the instruction of officers goes, they are in many respects an imitation of our own system. It is now planned that every English naval officer, whether he belong to the engineering branch, to the marines, or to the executive corps, shall be an engineer. All candidates for officers are hereafter to be trained at the Dartmouth Naval College for four years, entering at twelve or thirteen years. The cadets will then go to sea as midshipmen for from two and one-half to three years, studying during this period under the officers of the ships, and undergoing annual examinations. On passing the final tests they will become sub-lieutenants, and their careers will then, for the first time, diverge. Some will choose to be permanent engineers, others will join the line—that is, become navigating and executive officers—and others will enter the Royal Marines. In many ways this resembles our own method of training officers at Annapolis and giving them two years at sea, although we do not catch them so young. But the Admiralty is not yet ready to adopt the American system of making all officers serve alternately in the engine-room or on the deck—and wisely, because the plan has by no means succeeded. Moreover, the new Admiralty scheme, so far as the original appointment of officers is concerned, is aristocratic in its tendencies, and almost reserves the corps of naval officers for the sons of the gentry and the nobility.

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CORRUPTION AT THE FOUNTAIN.

Fresh ramifications of the postal scandals appear under every thrust of the probe. Postmaster-General Payne asks to be reported as having "just laughed" at new charges, but the country is not laughing. Friday's removals from office are no joke. What was first thought to be a petty irregularity in one department, now seems to be corruption which has honeycombed the whole service. Not only in the Postmaster-General's permanent establishment at Washington, but in various post-offices throughout the country, including New York and Indianapolis, suspicion of gross disregard of the law, to say nothing of favoritism and bribery, is rife and increasing. We smile at the man who was just now detected in a crude and open offer of $300 for appointment to a country post-office, yet the evidence that more refined but none the less corrupt methods are prevalent throughout the entire postal department is accumulating in the most alarming way.

Everybody is speaking of the anomaly of frauds like these occurring under a President who is at once a civil-service reformer and an honest man. Who could have imagined that the first term of Theodore Roosevelt should begin disagreeably to remind us of the second term of Gen. Grant? We have repeatedly borne witness to the pains President Roosevelt has taken to improve the public service. He has probably given more thought and labor to it, and incurred more enmities in standing up for what he believed to be his duty in that respect, than any of his recent predecessors. Abundant testimony comes to us of his readiness to coöperate with the Civil Service Commissioners, and of the better spirit which he has been able to infuse in many heads of departments. But all this only deepens the mystery. Is an honest Executive, then, no guarantee of honesty in the executive service? Mr. Roosevelt has not been personally impeccable. He has set some unfortunate examples of favoritism. His "friend Joe Murray" in place, and Byrne a District Attorney because he "has been useful to me," have been, of course, a direct if unintended encouragement to Senatorial spoils-mongers. But in the main, as we have said, he has worked hard to raise the standard of appointment to office and of fidelity in office. How is it, then, that this mortification and embarrassment of a revealed network of corruption in a great branch of the public service should have befallen precisely that President under whom we should least have looked to see it?

The true answer to this question will take us beyond personality to system. There was, after all, a certain sound sense in the famous cry of Anacharsis Clootz, "France, heal thyself of individuals!" At any rate, we must admit that a combination of many individuals is often too strong for a single one. Such we now see to be the case at Washington. An honest President is caught helpless in a dishonest system. We have before us a letter from a keen and veteran observer. Writing of the thickening postal scandals, he says: "I tell you, after thirty-five years of close official observation in Washington, that it is nonsense, child's play, idiocy, to suppose that the Executive fountains can pour out pure water as long as the Congressional cesspool empties into the fountain-head of the Departments."

This fundamental axiom of political water-infection helps us to see what an absurd figure is cut by Senator Lodge and other Congressmen who are deploring the political effect of the scandalous revelations. They even pull a long face and warn the President to make haste and bundle out the scoundrels. But who are the scoundrels? Why, the nominees of those very Congressmen. Every man of them has his "influence." All of the implicated postmasters and nearly all of the chiefs of division have been imposed upon the President by Congressmen, or the bosses behind Congressmen. For every one of Senator Lodge's rascals turned out, we may be sure that he has another just as good. There is, indeed, something very like a refinement of insult in the attitude of Senators who bewail the fact that the party is being injured by the President's delay in removing the rogues they have foisted upon him. What they ought to get from the Executive lips, when they go to him with that plaint, is such a blunt retort as President Cleveland once addressed to a Senator: "Well, I suppose you have come to ask me to appoint another horse-thief!"

But behind arrogant Congressmen stands the arrogant machine—"Organization," the wise it call. The Organization dictates to Congressmen, the latter dictate to the President. Our latest foreign critic, Ostrogorski, hits off the situation exactly when he writes that "the managers of the Organization, *disguised as members of Congress*, forced the Executive to make over the whole Federal patronage to them." That takes us back to the true source of the evil. A political system which, really representing only a minority of the party, controls nominations to elective office, and, through them, dictates the nominees to appointive office—there you have the origin of that coil of corruption in which President Roosevelt finds himself entangled. Let the most upright Executive that ever lived concede the right of the Senate to nominate as well as confirm, and he puts himself into the hands of a system whose first thought and chief aim are selfish personal gain, not public service. With such an idea dominant in the masters, how can the men be wondered at for prostituting their official position and their brief opportunity to private advantage?

Remedies for this spreading and festering evil the American people must find, if they would not all be eaten up of corruption. Every movement to extend and strengthen the classified service, in which entrance and promotion go by merit, not by "pull," must be grasped at as a means of political salvation. The higher officials, from President down, must be held to a more rigid responsibility, and forbidden themselves to act upon the principles of favoritism and "graft," if they would not see their example spread downward in accelerating demoralization. If House and President could unite to cut the claws of the Senate in the matter of patronage, so much the better. But the full remedy will not be found short of an aroused and active and independent public spirit which will fight the corrupt machine in its stronghold by making its nominations worthless, and despising alike its swords and its rewards.

REAL CURRENCY REFORM.

Telegrams from Hot Springs, Va., the other day, informed the public that a sub-committee of the Senate Committee on Finance, consisting of four Republican members (Senators Aldrich, Allison, Platt of Connecticut, and Spooner), had met there to consider the question of the national-bank currency. An outline of the plan contemplated was published as a Washington dispatch in the *Tribune* of May 7. In a general way it confirms the inferences drawn from the Aldrich bill of the last session, as contrasted with that of the House Committee on Banking and Currency, and implies that the Senate will adhere to the former. It is added, however, that Senator Spooner inclines to the principles of the House measure.

The difference between the two measures is radical. The Senate bill proposes no change from the present methods of issuing national-bank notes, but provides that the amount of Government bonds available for security therefor shall be enlarged in an indirect way by releasing bonds now held as security for Government deposits in national banks, the amount of which is about $150,000,000. The Aldrich bill proposed that bonds of State and municipal governments and of certain railroads should be accepted as collateral security for such deposits. The *Tribune's* dispatch tells us that the object of this change is to ease the Government bond market, and make it possible for bankers to obtain securities for bank circulation without paying a premium so high as to take all profit out of the note issues.

This explanation of the main object of the Aldrich bill throws light on the op-

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posing principles argued for by the House and the Senate respectively. The contention of the House Committee, as set forth in the Fowler bill and report, is that a bond-secured currency never can be an elastic currency, since it requires the bank to invest as much money in procuring its circulating notes as it gains by putting them in circulation. In fact, it has to invest more, since the bonds command a premium in the market, and since some of the notes will be either in the bank's vaults or en route homeward for redemption, and will not be earning anything at such times. The cost of transportation and of printing and renewing the notes must also be paid by the issuing banks. These are sufficient reasons why the existing banknote currency is non-elastic; but the fundamental reason is that they are not based upon the "banking principle."

The *raison d'être* of banking consists in exchanging the well-known credit of the bank for the less known credit of the bank's customer. It makes no difference whether the well-known credit of the bank is issued in the form of notes or of deposits, the latter being a right to draw checks on the bank, which the banker authorizes when he discounts the customer's paper. Under the "banking principle" which prevails in all countries except the United States and that part of Great Britain called England, the law authorizes the customer, after his paper is discounted, either to draw checks against the deposit so created, or to take the bank's notes, which are issued without special security. This is an elastic currency. It rises and falls according to the demand of business, because every issue of banknotes and every return of them to the bank, whether large or small, is an expression of the wants of trade at the moment when it takes place.

On the other hand, when a bank takes out circulation under our present system, it engages perforce in a bond-speculation. The bank is an active business enterprise. It expects to earn the average rate of profit in the community of which it is a member. As a purchaser of bonds, it has to bid against retired capitalists, savings banks, executors of decedent estates, and other investors to whom security is a higher consideration than profit. Not infrequently the Government itself comes into the market as a competing buyer. The price of the bonds is thus forced up beyond the chance of the average return on the capital employed. After the banker has bought his bonds and taken out his circulation, there is no certainty that he will keep it. He must still watch the market. He must avoid a loss on the bonds, and he will make a profit on them if he can. He is a trustee for his shareholders, and he must do what their interests require. If the chance to avoid a loss, or to make a profit, presents itself, he must seize it, regardless of the effect upon the circulating medium in general. Thus the issue of notes is not the chief concern of the bank. It is secondary to something else, and this is one of the reasons why a bond-secured currency never can be an elastic currency. It is responsive, not to the wants of trade, but to the price of bonds.

THE PERSIAN QUESTION.

Lord Lansdowne's declaration in Parliament that Great Britain would not allow any other Power to establish a naval station in the Persian Gulf, has been construed as an assertion of the Monroe Doctrine, *mutatis mutandis*. And so it is, if we accept Daniel Webster's definition of the Doctrine that each nation has the right to take such steps as it deems necessary for its own safety. England's route to India is via the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. A strong naval power in the Persian Gulf would be a menace to her line of communication. But this is not the sole reason for giving the warning. British trade in Persia itself is menaced by Russia in the north. The time has come to decide whether this trade shall be retained or not. If it is to be kept, railways must be built from the Gulf northward. They must be built with the coöperation of British capital, and protected by British fleets.

What would happen if some other nation should have a Monroe Doctrine of its own applicable to this particular part of the earth's surface? Suppose that Russia should conceive that a naval station in the Persian Gulf is necessary to her safety, and should proceed to establish one at Bunder Abbas, upon which she long ago fixed her glittering eye? Who would decide between these two conflicting necessities? Evidently nothing but powder and ball could arbitrate that question. Lord Lansdowne intended to be understood in that way. More than that, he implied that Great Britain was able to make her words good as against any Power or combination of Powers inclined to dispute her. She has virtual possession of those waters now. She has Aden and Bombay as naval bases, and no other Power has either ships or coaling stations within striking distance. Her position in the Persian Gulf is as strong as that of Russia in Mantchuria, and Lord Lansdowne's declaration may be taken as tit-for-tat to Russia's recent demands on China respecting the latter country.

The situation in the Gulf is described in Mr. H. J. Whigham's book 'The Persian Problem'—a revised collection of articles contributed by the author to the *Morning Post* of London and just published by Messrs. Scribner. Lord Lansdowne's manifesto seems to have been largely anticipated by these and similar contributions to the English press. The substance of the matter is that Russia has been pressing upon the northern frontier of Persia for several years, just as she did upon Turkestan and earlier upon Circassia. She has been gaining in trade and political influence at Teheran, and is now aiming to lay out and control a railway system for Persia. Her trade, according to Mr. Whigham, is promoted by a system of State bounties which England cannot match because bounties are contrary to her policy. On the other hand, Great Britain's facilities of transportation by water are such that she can lay down Manchester cottons in the interior of Persia at less cost than Moscow cottons can be afforded, and, with railway transportation from the Gulf northward, could undersell Russian goods in spite of Russian bounties.

The southern side of the Persian Gulf is inhabited by a sprinkling of Arabian tribes under their local sheikhs. These are under the nominal suzerainty of Turkey, but have been for fifty years or more under the immediate influence of an English Resident, who, with the help of an occasional gunboat or cruiser, has suppressed piracy in those waters, kept the slave trade at a minimum, and prevented the sheikhs from warring with each other. Outside of the Gulf and on the southern Arabian coast, is the ancient city of Muscat, ruled by its own Sultan, but also under a British protectorate of long duration. It is a significant circumstance, in view of Lord Lansdowne's recent declaration, that in 1899 the French consul at Muscat obtained from the Sultan a secret concession for a naval station at the port of Jissa, five miles from Muscat, and that when the fact became known to the British Admiral in those waters he gave immediate notice that he would prevent any such occupation of Jissa by bombardment if necessary. Mr. Whigham brings the serious accusation against the French authorities in those parts of conniving at the slave trade, and allowing the use of the French flag by slave dhows in order to win the favor of the Arabs. It is not believed, however, that such transactions received the countenance of the French Government.

At the entrance of the Gulf and on the Persian side lies the port of Bunder Abbas and the island of Ormuz. The latter is now a deserted sand heap. In Milton's time it was the synonym of royal splendor:

> "High on a throne of royal state which far
> Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
> Satan exalted sat."

Then it was the meeting place of the trade of the East and the West, and it contained a population of 40,000. Now it is occupied by a handful of Arab fishermen. Twelve miles to the northward lies the port which Russia hopes some time to acquire as her outlet to the Indian Ocean, and it is a fact much deprecated by Mr. Whigham that writers in such influential organs of British opinion as the *Spectator*, the *National*

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Review, and the *Fortnightly*, have advocated the policy of allowing Russia to take it. This policy has now been negatived decisively by the Government, and it is difficult to see how Russia can help herself in that quarter.

COPYRIGHT IN THE ENCYCLOPÆDIAS.

It may be taken as evidence of the vitality of the subject that six full quarto pages of the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica' are allowed to "Copyright." "T. E. S." deals with English, "G. H. P." with American, and "E. Ba." with Artistic Copyright. Thomas Edward Scrutton confines himself to supplementing the original contribution to the ninth edition of the 'Britannica' (by Mr. Edmund Robertson) by analyzing the subsequent judicial decisions on copyright questions, adding brief paragraphs on colonial and international copyright, and summarizing the provisions of the Berne Convention. What he contributes is necessarily accurate and valuable, and one could wish that his thorough knowledge of the subject and exceptional gift of concise summary and expression had been allowed fuller scope. He dismisses the interesting and delicate situation of copyright in Canada, for example, with the mere statement that "the desire of Canadian printers to allow or require copyright works to be reprinted or printed in Canada has given rise to a very difficult controversy."

George Haven Putnam devotes the main portion of his article to an exposition of the law of March 3, 1891, and the events leading up to its enactment. For the sake of historical accuracy, Washington should have been added to the list of cities in which were organized international copyright associations, although not there by reason of the initiative of the conference committee of the Authors' and Publishers' Leagues. The copyright-law amendments subsequent to the international copyright act are very briefly summarized, special attention being directed to the creation of the office of Register of Copyrights, the reorganization of the Copyright Office, and the kind and amount of the copyright business. The rider to the Public Documents act of January 12, 1895, providing that no "Government publication shall be copyrighted" is of sufficient importance to have been included in the summary of legislation relating to copyright. In conclusion, Mr. Putnam insists that "no little confusion and inequity" has been brought about by the typesetting clause, and that, "with this manufacturing condition out of the way, there would be nothing to prevent the United States from becoming a party to the Convention of Berne." He submits some considerations regarding the possible amendment of the laws in force, advocating, *inter alia*, an increase of the term of protection to the life of the author and for thirty years thereafter.

The longer section on "Artistic Copyright," confined entirely to English law, gives a history of the legislation in relation to works of art, and an analysis of the act of 1862, prior to which date, singularly enough, no legislation existed in Great Britain to give copyright protection to paintings, drawings, or photographs. Bills are now pending before Parliament to improve the present unsatisfactory condition of artistic copyright, which is thus summarized:

> "We have five British acts, three dealing with engraving, one with sculpture, and one with painting, drawing, and photography, and between them there is very little relation. We have three terms of duration of copyright—twenty-eight years for engraving; fourteen for sculpture, with a second fourteen if the artist be alive at the end of the first; life and seven years for painting, drawing, or photography. There are two different relations of the artist to his copyright. The sculptor's right to sell his work and retain his copyright has never been questioned so long as he signs and dates it. The painter's copyright is made to depend upon the signing of a document by the purchaser of his work. The engraver and the sculptor are not required to register; but the author's name, and the date of putting forth or publishing, must appear on his work. The painter cannot protect his copyright without registration, but this registration as it is now required is merely a pitfall for the unwary."

It is insisted that "the great obstacle in the way of securing a really good artistic bill has been the introduction into it of photography," and that "there seems considerable fear that, in any new legislation, the attempt to give the same terms to both painter and photographer may lead to great injury and injustice to the public."

The two-page article on Copyright in the 'New International Encyclopædia,' while offering no special opportunity for comment, invites suggestions in the way of revision. The assertion that copyright in published works exists in England to-day by virtue of the act of July 1, 1842, with no hint of the numerous preceding and subsequent enactments affecting literary and artistic property, is likely to mislead; and the various amendments of our own Revised Statutes relating to copyrights are ignored in the statement that "the act now in force is that of July 8, 1870, amended, in regard to its international provisions, in March, 1891." In summarizing these two acts, it was a singular slip to include the qualifying phrase "being a citizen of the United States, or a resident therein," when the chief purpose of the act of March 3, 1891, was to remove these restrictive words from the law then in force.

Readers not familiar with the subject are likely to get a wrong impression from the inclusion of "written articles" in the list of subjects of copyright protection, no point being better established than the fact (as Mr. Drone expresses it) that "publication is the beginning of statutory copyright, and a condition precedent to its existence." The copyright business was not transferred to the Librarian of Congress in 1831, as stated, but by the act of 1870, and the office of Register of Copyrights was created by a provision of the legislative appropriation act of February 19, 1897, and not by the copyright act of 1891. The term of our copyright protection is correctly stated as twenty-eight years with a right of renewal for fourteen years more, but it is incorrect to say that "this time limit is that of the original English statutes," because the original English act (of 1709) provided for a term of protection of twenty-one years for books then printed; and, for books to be printed, fourteen years from publication, with a renewal term of fourteen years more—and the English term has never been precisely the same as our present term.

The necessity for condensation in an encyclopædia article doubtless renders absolute accuracy of distinction difficult, but it might have been well to make clear that while the copies for the four libraries of Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, and Dublin are required to be deposited only "on demand," the British Museum is not obliged to make any demand, and neither the copyright nor the right to sue is affected by non-delivery. The statement is made that the "term for art copyright is fixed, under the act of 38 Geo. III., at 28 years," but chapter 71 of that regnal year dealt only with the protection of works of sculpture, and not with works of art generally, and the term of such protection was 14, not 28 years. The law was amended by the act of May 18, 1814, which added a renewal term of 14 years, and it was repealed in 1861. No mention is made of protection for other artistic productions, such as paintings and drawings, which, together with photographs, really fall under the provisions of the "Fine Arts Copyright Act" of 1862.

The intricate matter of copyright and playright in England is dismissed with the mere statement that a dramatic production is given the same term of protection as that accorded to a work of literature; and Sir James Stephen is quoted as authority for believing that copyright in acts of Parliament probably vests in the Crown; but, after the publication of Sir James's valuable digest of the English law of copyright, a Treasury Minute of August 31, 1887, determined that acts of Parliament, among other public documents, were free for reproduction without restriction in any form whatever. The assertion that there is, under the English law, "no obligation to make registration" should be qualified by pointing out that, in the case of paintings, drawings, and photographs, registration is virtually a condition precedent to protection, as it is required to precede the infringement complained of, instead of simply preced-

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ing the bringing of suit for such infringement.

Several inaccuracies occur in the brief paragraph on copyright abroad. Protection in Germany is said to date from 1871, but the act of June 11, 1870, going into effect in 1871, is no longer in force, the principal copyright laws of Germany being the acts of January 9, 1876 (for sculpture), January 10, 1876, (for photographs), and the two acts of January 19, 1901, one dealing with works of literature and music, and the other with the relations between publishers and authors. In Italy, copyright does not rest "upon the statute of 1865," long since abrogated, but upon the provisions of the law of May 18, 1882. In stating the period of protection in Japan to be "the life of the author and five years, or thirty-five years from date of publication, whichever term may be the longer," quotation was doubtless made from the ordinance of 1887; but that alert Eastern nation passed a new copyright law on March 3, 1899, and extended the term of protection to the life of the author and thirty years after his death. Injustice is done to Spain, also, the country which has still the longest statutory term of protection, in stating that term to be life of the author and thirty years, whereas it is really life and eighty years. The attempt to deal with so important a subject in two octavo pages invited failure, and it is to be hoped that opportunity will offer for a more adequate handling in the "historical treatment" of the subject promised for a later volume under the caption "Literary Property."

THE ROMAN STRIKE.

FLORENCE, April 24, 1903.

The late attempt at a general strike in Rome has set the two sections of the Italian Socialists—the Revolutionary and the Reformist—at loggerheads, and the curious phase of the battle is that the *Avanti*, the general daily organ of the entire party, takes the side of Turati, the leader of the Reformists, against the leader of the Revolutionists, Enrico Ferri, who has but now been chosen as the new director of the paper since the resignation of Bissolati.

The question at issue is this: At the great Congress of Imola, Pietro Chiesa and Gino Murialdi, in their diligent and exhaustive reports on the economic organization of the industrial proletariat, while admitting the utility of a general strike as a protest against violent or reactionary political measures, demonstrated its inexpediency as an economic weapon. Moreover, they deprecated the system of unorganized, sudden, unjustified strikes in the several trades, and their conclusions were endorsed by about three-quarters of the Congress. Two hundred and eighty, under the leadership of Ferri, while agreeing as to the inopportuneness of a general strike as an economic weapon, maintained that strikes in the separate trades were the only measures calculated to ameliorate the condition of the industrial working classes, and were, moreover, educational methods of organization and preparation. They maintained that the "revolutionist leaders" in all cases of a strike, meditated or proposed, ought to mix with the strikers, moderating or stimulating the movement as might appear expedient. But during the late strike of the Roman printers, Ferri and his colleagues either remained neutral or leaned, now to this, now to that side of the combatants, and it is for this that Turati is calling them to account in very stringent fashion. He it was, as your readers may remember, who gave such powerful coöperation to the Premier (for the time Minister of Public Works) during the threatened general strike of the railway men last year. Through his activity and influence the public catastrophe was averted; and while the Prime Minister, Zanardelli, carried his point and the railway employees were placed under military discipline, very substantial benefits were obtained for them, which will be added to when the term of the convention expires, and the men, thoroughly organized, are able to make their own terms with the future managers of the railways, whether Governmental or private companies.

The printers in Italy are fairly organized in the great cities and associated in the Federazione del Libro. Some five weeks since, the Roman printers working for certain firms demanded an eight instead of a ten-hour day, and sundry other concessions. Their employers refused to pay the same wages for eight as for ten hours, offering a nine-hours day at a nine-hours wage. Upon this about 2,000 printers went on strike without consulting the heads of the Federation, and without, it appears, any reserve fund on which to subsist during their struggle. Their comrades, however, in other cities came out with generous support, but the masters took on other workmen, and this introduction of "blacklegs" (*krumiri*, so called after the African tribe which gave France a pretext for the invasion and occupation of Tunis) exasperated the men to such a point that, disorders being feared, the Government, while maintaining strict neutrality between the contending parties, called into Rome sufficient forces to overawe any revolutionary agitators, to guard the printing establishments and protect the rights of labor in the persons of the "blacklegs." During these weeks, the "Revolutionary Socialists" kept aloof, neither inciting nor moderating the strikers. They made, it is true, some attempts to arrange terms with the masters, but, failing, took no further part in the proceedings. Meanwhile the masters withdrew the offer of a nine-hours day, refused to dismiss the men summoned to replace those on strike, and refused to treat with the "Federation of the Book," declining all the proposals made by the Deputies Luzzatti and Roux (head of the great publishing house in Turin and now editor of the *Tribuna*). Thereupon the Government, after holding a full cabinet council, sent their ultimatum to the heads of the firms that have contracts with the State. Seeing that for an entire month the official publications entrusted to these firms had been, owing to the strike, suspended, to the great detriment of the public administration, an official warning was sent to the head of each firm, notifying them that if within a week they had not placed themselves in a position to fulfil their contracts, they would not only be summoned to pay the legal forfeit for past failure, but would be excluded from future bidding for Government contracts.

The defaulting firms protested against this measure, accusing the Government of partiality for the men on strike; moreover, they avowed their intention of appealing to the courts, confident of a verdict of "not guilty" on the score of coercive force (*forza maggiore*). All the commercial and industrial firms in Rome, united in their societies and associations, convoked an extraordinary meeting and proclaimed solidarity with the heads of the printing establishments—with admiration of the energy and firmness manifested for five and thirty days in resisting the unjust demands of the workmen—condemning the partisan action of the Government, prophesying a complete victory, and solemnly affirming that all the industrial and commercial firms were and would remain their stanch allies; that all were ready to share the responsibility which the Government cast on their shoulders for the non-fulfilment of their contracts, placing at the service of the printing firms all the moral and material means they possessed in order to secure the entire and indisputable triumph of their common cause. This challenge to the men on strike when the contest was at its height, was the signal for action on the part of the other working classes in Rome, where rumors of a general strike had prevailed more or less during the first days of April; and here especially it was the duty of the Revolutionist leaders to intervene to prevent a useless and most inopportune demonstration.

Enrico Ferri, requested to speak in behalf of the strike, delivered instead an academic discourse on the "Future of Human Labor." Interviewed by the correspondent of a Neapolitan newspaper, he deprecated a general strike at the moment when Rome was crowded with visitors, gathered there for the Easter ceremonies, for the great historical and other congresses; but made no attempt to prevent it. At first the typographers hesitated to obey the call—the Labor Bureau (especially the republican members of the executive) was against it; but it was evident that the working classes themselves had decided to come out as soon as the employers of labor decided on making common cause with the heads of the printing houses. First, the stonemasons on the Victor Emanuel monument abandoned their work; and the contractor, without taking on other hands, gave notice that the works would be closed until further notice. Then followed the metal workers, glassworkers, barbers, cigarmakers, bakers, butchers, newspaper vendors, bricklayers, house painters, plasterers, carpenters, etc., and 2,000 men belonging to the paper and printing trades. The cab, coach, and tram drivers struck also, thus causing considerable inconvenience to the citizens and foreigners in what, for Italy, is a "city of distances." The municipal employees, forewarned, were fore-armed, so that the gas and electric illumination was not interfered with. The hotel, restaurant, and inn servants were left in peace, so that the convenience of visitors was less infringed than in last year's strike in Florence; but these left Rome in thousands, the hotel omnibuses

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serving to convey them to the station, so that the loss inflicted on the hotels, apartments, and pensions was considerable, to say nothing of the provision dealers, guides, and all the breadwinners whose chief source of gain is these very visitors. With the exception of prohibiting mass meetings in public buildings and in "the open," the authorities remained neutral, calling some 20,000 troops of all arms into Rome for the protection of the Vatican, of the obnoxious printing establishments, and of the *krumiri*. The municipal authorities, with praiseworthy promptness, provided bread and meat for all from Naples and Florence—so amply, indeed, that, when the general strike ceased, ninety quintals of bread and some $6,000 worth of provisions were distributed among the poor, many of whom were the more or less voluntary strikers themselves, and among the charitable establishments.

The Labor Bureau, whose executive had, as we have seen, disapproved of but made no attempt to prevent the strike, summoned a few friends in council—Ferri, Lollini, other Socialists and Deputies—and it was decided that, the demonstration of solidarity having been made, the strike must cease. The executive summoned the leaders of the separate trades, thanked them for their "generous manifestation of loyalty to their working comrades in misfortune," and exhorted them to return to their usual vocations, which, probably after enjoying their brief Roman holiday, they did with the utmost alacrity. No notice was taken of their absence by their employers, who had not had time to take on new hands. Giolitti, Minister of the Interior, was congratulated on his precautions for the prevention of disorder and the avoidance of bloodshed, by the King himself, and by all but the employers of the typographical strikers, who meanwhile remained in the same condition as before the general strike—even worse off, as the employers, encouraged by the pledges of the other industrial and commercial capitalists, became more resolute in refusing to treat with the Federation as such. The newspapers, which had been suspended during the strike, mostly counselled submission. The Revolutionary Socialists still kept silence, but the men were so exasperated that, when called upon by the chief mover and leader of the strike, Parpagnolli, to decide on surrender or on submission by appeal to a general referendum, 1,400 voted by ballot for the continuation of the strike, less than 300 for its cessation. Here the Labor Bureau did intervene to prove to them the utter hopelessness of holding out. So to necessity they yielded; the employers refusing to dismiss a single *krumir*, taking the strikers back one by one, according to the roll-lists, and sending personal summons to the respective houses of the men, in no case treating with the Federazione del Libro.

Clearly, every country and class must buy its own experience. A century of industrial warfare in England has reduced strikes practically to zero and theoretically to a negative, but here in Italy they are reenacted day by day all over the country. Lately did not the very schoolboys go on strike because they or their professors had misinterpreted some measure adopted by the Minister of Public Instruction? As soon as the general strike was over, the five Republican members of the executive sent in their resignation on the ground that the strike had been made without consultation with them and in spite of their disapproval. They had kept silence while it lasted in order not to add to the general confusion; but they now withdrew irrevocably. The six Socialists entreated them to reconsider their decision, and the general council of the labor board, which is the assembly of the representatives of all the organizations of the workingmen in Rome, pronounced "absolution" for all the sins of commission and omission by the entire executive, begging them to accept a bill of indemnity and all to remain at their posts. The Republicans, while heartily grateful for the encomiums of the council, affirmed that they could not consent to remain in a position in which they were unable to carry out measures beneficial, from their point of view, to the working classes, or to prevent others which they consider detrimental. Hence the Socialists felt bound also to resign, and the workers remain *pro tem.* sheep without a shepherd.

NAPOLEON'S BROTHERS.

PARIS, April 22, 1903.

M. Frédéric Masson has been adding two volumes at a time, namely, v. and vi., to his already long series on "Napoleon and his Family," which extends from 1769 to 1809. They cover the period from 1809 to 1811. We must admire M. Masson's energy when we remember that, besides the series of which we are now speaking, he has already published seven volumes on the Emperor and his two wives, and that he has several others in preparation; among them one specially dedicated to Napoleon II., the Duke de Reichstadt.

The two latest are open to criticism. As they deal exclusively with the brothers and sisters of Napoleon, who lived in different countries and had very different interests, they are wanting in unity. I found it, I confess, rather laborious work to be shifting from Holland to Spain, from Spain to Italy, from Italy to Germany. M. Masson is a conscientious searcher after the truth; he enters into infinite details, but he makes his readers somewhat too conscious of his own efforts. His style is very unequal; it is at times too conversational, too *lâché*, to use a French word, too journalistic; at other times, when he gets hold of a general idea, or when he approaches his god, Napoleon, it becomes too pompous, accumulates too many images, and is too inflated. M. Masson evidently cares much less for style than for truth, and we cannot be sufficiently grateful to him for devoting a lifetime to telling us the whole truth about the Napoleonic period.

There are, so to speak, some fundamental ideas of the Napoleonic history which M. Masson has well discerned. With a true scientific spirit he has realized in Napoleon and his family the capital importance of Corsican clannishness. *Madame mère* was a true Corsican mother; she never could have understood all her children not having a share in her Napoleon's fortune. Napoleon himself felt it his duty to raise all his brothers and sisters to the level which he had attained. His clannish instincts were somewhat contraried by the great and, it may be said, the passionate sentiment which he felt for his wife Josephine. A feeling of gratitude was mingled with his passion. He knew well the failings, the weaknesses, of his "little Creole"; but she had been his first love; she had, by her influence over Barras, made him general of the army of Italy, and the first Italian campaign had revealed to France and to the world his military genius. The first years of the Consulate were a perpetual struggle between the Bonapartes and the Beauharnais. Napoleon was faithful to his family, but he was faithful also to Josephine and to the Beauharnais; he treated Eugene and Hortense as if they were his own children. So long as he thought that he should have no heir of his own, he lavished favors on his brothers and sisters; he gave them thrones, thinking that they would remain obedient instruments of his great designs and of his politics. He soon found out that they did not mean to be simply his tools; they thought themselves as good as he; they claimed an independence which became at times threatening to his power; they took themselves *au sérieux* as sovereigns; they assumed the language and the pretensions of princes belonging to the oldest dynasties.

A great change was produced in Napoleon's mind when he divorced Josephine and allied himself to the dynasty of the Hapsburgs. What gives the chief interest to M. Masson's two new volumes is the accurate analysis of this mental evolution. Napoleon was now in hopes of having heirs of his own blood, allied to the historical families of Europe. He had always considered the kings of his own making more like French prefects than like independent rulers; he had never been satisfied with them: he now entered into a new phase, and, instead of surrounding France with allied but nominally independent provinces, he gradually added these provinces to an empire of which the limits were extending more and more. He felt in himself the qualities, the power, and the will of a great ruler of men, and could no longer endure any obstacle, even if the obstacle was a member of his own family.

It was evidently the succession of the Holy Roman Empire which Napoleon had in view when he divorced Josephine and hoped to form a dynasty himself. At the very moment when Berthier, his Ambassador Extraordinary, went to Vienna to ask officially the hand of the Archduchess Marie Louise, a senatus-consultum was issued, saying that "the Prince Imperial bears the title and receives the honors of the King of Rome." This was not enough. In 1806, after the coronation, in Paris and in Milan, Napoleon had already shown that he aspired to the supreme consecration, in Rome, of the Empire of the Occident; but he had met with opposition from the Pope. The senatus-consultum, just mentioned, established for Napoleon's successors the obligation to be crowned in Rome: "After having been crowned in the Church of Notre Dame in Paris, the Emperors shall be crowned in the Church of Saint Peter at Rome, before the tenth year of their reign."

How could this ambition be reconciled with the acts of Napoleon? He had disposed of Italy in favor of Eugene and of Murat, he had disposed of Holland in favor of his brother Louis. What will be the ultimate fate of Spain, of Germany? What will he do with his brother Lucien, with his

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brother Joseph? Lucien was always considered the most intelligent of his brothers; he had refused to assist at the marriage with Marie Louise; he was living near Rome, at Canino, negotiating with Napoleon and trying in vain to obtain the recognition of his marriage with Madame Jouberthon, his second wife. Napoleon wished him to divorce her, and Lucien refused to do so. M. Masson enters into long and fatiguing details on these negotiations. The iron will of Napoleon for the first time met an equally strong will. Lucien, after a while, not thinking himself quite safe in Italy, and fearing extreme measures on the part of his brother, resolved to leave Italy, and secretly embarked at Civita Vecchia, with all his family. He was forced by various circumstances to go to Malta, where he became a prisoner of war to England, and after a while was obliged to go to England, where he landed at Plymouth. Napoleon was much incensed at his brother's conduct; he deprived him of all his dignities, and decreed that neither Lucien nor his children should be allowed to return to the territory of the Empire.

The most interesting chapter in M. Masson's sixth volume relates to the Kingdom of Spain and to King Joseph. The infatuation of Joseph is incredible, and becomes almost amusing at times. His vanity had no limit, as well as his ambition. During the Austrian campaign, Joseph, in the event of Napoleon's being killed, considered himself the possible Emperor of France, and already made plans of government. Joseph wrote to his wife: "The way I live here, in Madrid, has become intolerable to me. If my relations with the Emperor do not change, my position must be altered; if he meant to disgust me with Spain, he has succeeded. . . . The humiliating posture he would have me accept on the throne of a great nation does not suit me. . . . I don't want to be under the guardianship of my inferiors; I don't want to see my provinces administered by men who do not possess my confidence." Joseph always professed to prefer a quiet life, a country life, to everything else; he affected to be always ready to abandon the throne; but he defended his sovereign rights with the greatest tenacity. The truth is that the Emperor always corresponded with the heads of the French army in Spain, thinking that as long as Spain was not entirely pacified, it was necessary that he should direct all the military operations. He entirely disapproved the expedition which Joseph undertook to make in Andalusia, his attempts at negotiation with the Junta of Seville. Napoleon, who was essentially a soldier, cared little for the Junta, and saw clearly that the great objective of the war was Portugal and the English army, and that it was useless to lose time in Andalusia.

Joseph made proclamation after proclamation, decree after decree. He wrote to the Emperor: "Andalusia is pacified; order is reëstablished; the Junta is dissolved; its members have fled either to England or to Gibraltar; the situation is excellent." The capitulation of Baylen fully opened the eyes of Napoleon; he understood that all Joseph's declarations were mere "fausse monnaie"; he placed the administration of the Spanish provinces in the hands of the French generals, with full powers necessary for military operations. He boldly and by a stroke of the pen added Catalonia to the territories of the French Empire; his ultimate desire was to bring Joseph's mind to the necessity of abdicating, and to annex the whole of Spain to the Empire.

"In the midst of this great Spain, which does not want him, Joseph takes refuge on the raft of New Castile, with the few Spaniards attached to his fortunes, the few Frenchmen who share it, and he plays the King; while in his provinces, rich and poor, rebel or not rebel, the Emperor's generals, making themselves by degrees independent, make laws, levy taxes, dispose of the lives and property of his subjects, ignore entirely his authority, and arrange to get out of their astounding fortune all the profit possible."

This situation did not put an end to Joseph's infatuation. In a sort of delirious egotism, he took no account of the circumstances in which he was placed; he hardly felt his isolation in his kingdom. He felt as if France and Europe had no other duty than to establish him safely as King of Spain. He lived among a few flatterers. He convinced himself that he had great military ability. He went so far as to write: "I wish posterity to pity a great nation for having misunderstood the King which God in His goodness had given it." This state of mind is what M. Masson calls "the royal delirium—the delirium of the *légitimes*," but he justly wonders how it could have been produced in the mind of a "bourgeois of Ajaccio, placid, liberal moderate (or thinking himself moderate), who, in his astonishing fortune, had hitherto preserved a certain sense, a notion of the real world. His delirium was not like that of King Louis [the King of Holland], the result of illness combined with the tragic circumstances in which he had been accidentally placed; it was a special delirium, unclassified, the delirium of the throne. In virtue of his Corsican right of primogeniture, which constitutes a sort of principle, Joseph was predisposed to it; but he had resisted a purely French greatness, even the Neapolitan greatness; it was the work of Spain."

It would be tedious to enter into all the details of the last struggles of Joseph; he consented at last to leave Spain, but he had not made up his mind about an abdication; he reserved the future. He returned to France with the hope of coming to some final understanding with the Emperor; he wanted an explanation from him, and renounced all hope of a throne, though he wrote, "To live as quietly as I have lived, agitated for twenty-five years, especially for the last ten, is all I ask from the Emperor."

Correspondence.

SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am sure I voice the opinion of many of your readers in expressing an unqualified satisfaction in your recent editorials on the race question. They are of the right ring all through, and impart new hope and strength to the mind bewildered by most of the public speaking on this subject. These articles are to be the more commended that they are written from the philosophical and not the sentimental point of view, in simple elucidation of an accepted political faith and polity.

The most serious results of this controversy lie not in any continued disabilities against a particular class, bad as these results are; they are rather found in the proof they give of a weakening political faith and honor on the part of those imposing such disabilities. The race that counts itself the superior is rapidly losing its right to the title. Its loss of moral tone and fibre is daily evinced in the published utterances of distinguished professors, statesmen, and divines, who hasten to put themselves on record in words of lame apology, twisted logic, and feeble sophistry that will form strange reading to the student of history a generation or two from now.

And the race that admits itself the inferior is steadily moving forward. It has survived worse hardships and more flagrant wrongs than those arising from the sectional strifes and race prejudices of our own day, mean legislative enactments, civic tyranny, and social insult. So it will survive these latter-day wrongs, more subtly devised, and far more shameful to those imposing them than their more brutal atrocities were to the low and ignorant Legrees of an earlier time.

No; the concern of the patriot to-day is not for the black man so much as for his white oppressor. We need another Thomas Jefferson and a new John Adams to teach us a few primal truths about the rights of man and the province of self-government. In the meantime the *Nation* is doing its part to preserve our moral backbone, and shame the spirit of reactionary folly and distrust which has ruined many a state and institution in the past, and may ruin ours.

Celia Parker Woolley.

Chicago, May 4, 1903.

A DISCLAIMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your criticism, issue of May 7, of an article on the mulatto, in the current *Atlantic*, you express the opinion that, if that article reflects the sentiment of the committee of which the writer is a member, little is to be expected from its findings.

In justice to that committee, I am prompted to make the statement that no member of it was consulted by me in connection with the opinions expressed in the article in question, and that I have no reason to believe that any member of it holds views similar to my own. The committee is composed of five members, the undersigned being the only Southern white man on it. One of its members is Dr. W. E. B. DuBois, the most intellectual man identified with the negro race, though himself a mulatto. The business of that committee is to investigate conditions, not to put forward theories, and membership upon it can scarcely be held a bar to the expression of one's personal ideas.

I may also add that I had no knowledge of the fact that any statement of my association with that committee was to be made in connection with the appearance of the article noticed by you.

Very truly yours, Alfred H. Stone.

200 A Street, S. E., Washington, May 9, 1903.

THE STRIKE COMMISSION'S REPORT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A more careful examination of Bulletin No. 46 of the Department of Labor

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would have shown you that the hiatus between premises and conclusion in the report of the Anthracite Strike Commission, referred to in your editorial, "Strike-Commission Logic," in the current number of the *Nation* (No. 1975), was supplied by the report itself.

Your report of the finding in response to claims (1 and 2), as quoted, is qualified by the following quotation:

"In attempting a comparison with other occupations, we are met at once with the embarrassing condition that in such occupations the rate of wages paid by the day or month is uniform, while in the work of contract miners, who are paid by the yard, car, or ton, the number of days or hours represented by the earnings is a varying quantity, and the number of days in which he is actually employed at all, may be much fewer than the average number of days constituting a year's work in most other employments."

The report of the Strike Commission contains much more in the same line indicated by this quotation. Here is a sample: "Take, for example, the year of 1901, a year of more than usual activity in mining operations; the average number of days throughout the region on which work was started was approximately 260. The number may have been less."

Again, your quotation of the finding in response to claim 5, to the effect that the hazard of the contract miner is not greater than "in the fisheries, and in those of switchmen and freight-train crews on our railroads," is qualified by what immediately follows, viz., "Still the requirements are exacting, and this fact has been duly weighed by the Commission, in coming to a decision upon the demand for an increase in the rate of compensation of contract miners."

In several other respects the report of the Strike Commission qualifies your point-blank findings, as quoted. Finally, the Commission, in its report upon this branch of the case, which relates to contract miners, and only one of the four demands made by the miners, and which is not the whole case, as you erroneously state, steps naturally and connectedly from premises to conclusion by the following statement immediately preceding the finding on this part of the case, as quoted by you, without any astonishing "*therefore*," in manner following, which I quote in full:

"Reviewing the whole case, and acting upon the conviction produced by the hearing of testimony, and the examination of statistics, the Commission is of the opinion that, in view of the interruptions incident to mining operations, the increased cost of living, the uncertainty as to the number of days during the year presenting an opportunity for work, and the inequalities of physical conditions affecting the ability to earn, and not overlooking the hazardous nature of the employment, some increase in the rate of compensation to contract miners should be made."

HERBERT A. DRAKE.

CAMDEN, N. J., May 11, 1903.

[The qualifications adduced by our correspondent are the very thing in question. They are part of the give and take which makes the award amenable to the criticism we applied to it. Of course, both sides were taken under consideration, but what is negatived in pretension does not prepare for what is allowed in the verdict. In other words, the Commission disallowed about 90 per cent. of the miners' contentions but granted them about 50 per cent. of their claims. As to daily rate and annual earnings, the Commission concluded that "the future demand for anthracite coal will keep the industry at its present point of activity"—that is, with all the men practically employed all the working days of the year.—ED. NATION.]

JOHN EDWARDS HOLBROOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please allow me to correct a statement in the report of Dr. Gill's biographical memoir of Dr. John Edwards Holbrook, read at the recent meeting of the National Academy of Sciences in Washington. In your paper of April 30, page 351, you say:

"He [Dr. Holbrook] was an ichthyologist of the finest scientific quality, well known to Louis Agassiz, Jeffries Wyman and a few more, but known to very few even of the scientific world."

It is the last line to which I object. Dr. Holbrook made his reputation by his 'North American Herpetology' in five volumes, 1836-42. This is said to have been the first important scientific work produced by a native American. It received such general recognition in this country and in Europe that when the first (and only) volume of the 'Ichthyology of South Carolina' appeared, the title-page of that work described him as "Professor of Anatomy in the Medical College of South Carolina; Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh; of the Royal Society of Northern Antiquities, Copenhagen; of the Society of Naturforschende Freunde, Berlin; Corresponding Member of the American Philosophical Society; of the American Society of Arts and Sciences; of the Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia; of the New York Lyceum of Natural History; and of the Boston Natural History Society."

Dr. Holbrook died in 1871.

H. H. RAVENEL.

CHARLESTON, S. C., May 6, 1903.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out 'A Political History of Slavery,' by William Henry Smith, in two volumes; 'The Anglo-Saxon Century and the Unification of the English-Speaking People,' by John R. Dos Passos; 'Modern Civic Art: The City Made Beautiful,' by Charles Mulford Robinson; and 'Psychology and Common Life,' by Frank Sargent Hoffman.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce 'How to Keep Well,' by Floyd M. Crandall, M.D., and a 'Poultry Book' in eighteen parts, with Prof. W. G. Johnson and George O. Brown for American editors.

Macmillan Company will issue during the present month volumes i. and iii. of 'An Illustrated History of English Literature,' edited by Dr. Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse, in four volumes; 'Why the Mind Has a Body,' by Prof. C. A. Strong of Columbia; and 'A Fight for the City [New York],' by Alfred Hodder.

An interesting announcement is that, in the reorganization of the London house of Routledge, its American agency passes to E. P. Dutton & Co. of this city.

A tiny forerunner of this centennial anniversary month is 'Every Day with Emerson,' compiled by Harriet A. Townsend (Buffalo), by arrangement with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Prose and verse extracts fill out the year on the rubricated pages. Less dainty and comely, but fuller, is the 'Thoughts from Emerson for Every Day in the Year,' selected by Ann Bachelor (Boston: James H. Earle & Co.). Oddly enough, while the verse of the Concord philosopher is quite disregarded, each month is introduced by a seasonable poetical extract from some other poet.

An attractive little edition of R. L. Stevenson's 'Memories and Portraits' is put forth by Herbert B. Turner & Co., Boston, with a liberty which substitutes for the essay called "The Manse" an early production, "The Philosophy of Umbrellas." Among the other pieces is that "Humble Remonstrance" with Henry James for a critique of 'Treasure Island,' supplemented by a briefer comment on Mr. Howells's theorizing about his own art.

For the thirteenth time Dauchy & Co. of this city issue their annual 'Newspaper Catalogue,' geographically arranged, with lists of religious and "class publications," of newspapers in foreign languages, and of such as use "patent outsides (or insides)," with some other distinctive features for the benefit of advertisers.

The stout volume entitled 'The Kaiser's Speeches, forming a Character Portrait of Emperor William II.,' translated and edited by Wolf von Schierbrand, upon the basis of a compilation made with the imperial sanction by A. Oscar Klaussmann, but more inclusive (Harpers), is a useful *corpus*, but not above criticism as a piece of bookmaking. It gives really more than it promises, being to a large extent a chronicle of the Emperor's doings and journeyings as well as speeches. It gives less than it should, because there is no index, and because the typography adopted confounds the imperial words with the editor's elucidations. Hence it is not easy to find one's way even with the aid of the awkward classification adopted—"The Kaiser for Peace and Reconciliation," "Promoting the Welfare of the Empire," "The Kaiser in More Intimate Circles," with numerous sub-divisions. Surely, a strict chronological arrangement would have been preferable, with the least thread of historic connection, and then a first-rate analytical index, in which the political and the psychologic aspects would have shone out. As it is, where should one look for expressions of the Emperor's mediæval view of the divine right of kings? In the last-named category, section "The Kaiser and his Family"! The translation has the idiomatic defects one might expect, but is faithful in intent. The preface contains the just observation that what shocks Americans, for example, in the Emperor's speeches often touches "chords in the German soul which would not have vibrated otherwise."

No English writer has ever known more of the history of Siena and its institutions than Mr. Heywood, the author of 'Our Lady of August,' the 'Ensamples of Fra Filippo,' and various other works concerned with the past of that most fascinating of Italian city-states. It was a brilliant idea of the Sie-

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nese publisher, E. Torrini, to get this accomplished scholar to write down in popular, even seductive, form the history of Siena, and to supplement it with a very complete and genuinely critical account of its art, by Lucy Olcott (Mrs. F. M. Perkins). The resulting volume forms a guide-book, the like of which scarcely exists for any other town—a guide-book at once more critical and constructive than Mr. Langton Douglas's, more careful and select than Mr. Gardner's, both which works we have recently reviewed in these columns. It is a sign of the times, by the way, that Siena is beginning to absorb so much attention, and it is even more refreshing a sign that, in the book we are now considering, Sodoma is no longer the chief attraction of Siena. You might as well journey to Athens to spend all your admiration upon the Temple of Zeus, ignoring the Parthenon and all the other glories of the Acropolis.

The popularizing of Plato is not always judiciously done, and, on the whole, in an age like ours, when not to have definite and serious views on education is to be thought flippant, one is likely to hear only too often of the 'Republic' of Plato, a storehouse from which one can always point a moral. But Professor Lewis Campbell, having boldly ignored the advice of Joubert not to live on Plato, but to visit him now and again for change of air, is an excellent guide. His little book entitled 'Plato's Republic' (Home and School Library Series, E. P. Dutton & Co.) sums up in 176 pages certain aspects of the 'Republic' that have impressed himself and Jowett. The style is quite informal, the illustrations are pleasing, and one who should make the acquaintance of Plato from these chapters would probably feel impelled to further researches into the dialogues.

The third number of the new *Hibbert Journal* contains several articles of unusual interest. Rhys Davids writes on Buddhism as a living force, finding a favorable environment for this cult in present conditions. Less philosophical, but of a practical importance that should result in its being read by all those interested in missionary work in foreign fields, is the striking article by Josiah Oldfield, on the failure of Christian Missions in India. American contributors are well represented; Prof. B. W. Bacon writing on the Johannine problem, and Prof. G. B. Stevens on Sabatier and the Paris School of Theology.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for May, Mr. Cyrus C. Adams shows how the geographic conditions of this country have contributed to its development. Among these are its diversity of climate and products, its situation on the same side of the tropics with the great buyers of our food commodities, our harbors and rivers (affording, on a basis of three feet as the minimum depth of navigability, 14,000 miles of navigation measured in a straight line). The remainder of the number, with the exception of the notes, is devoted to our work in the Philippines, the conquest of the bubonic plague, the improvements in Manila, and the attempts to develop the agricultural resources which, according to Gov. Taft, must always constitute the wealth of the islands. A marked feature of the number is the eighteen full-page illustrations, which are of unusual merit and interest.

The scientific *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* is publishing a series of instructive articles on the merits and demerits of the literary language of modern Greece, in which the pros and cons are defended with unusual vigor. Several weeks ago Dr. Krumbacher of Munich, the recognized leader of Modern Greek philology in Western Europe, and the occupant of the only university chair in Germany devoted to this department, published a discussion of the subject, in which with great learning he argued for the substitution of the popular Greek of the day in place of the *Kunstsprache* which practically holds supreme sway in Hellenic literature. A keen reply to this comes from the pen of Dr. Kleanthes Nikolaides, a Greek who has spent about two decades in research in Western university centres, and who makes a determined defence of the modern adaptation of the classical idiom now current in Greek literature. He declares that ninety-nine out of every hundred educated Greeks would protest against the use of the vulgar idiom for literary purposes, just as the Low Germans from the Dutch borders to the Baltic province would protest against the elevation of the Plattdeutsch to an equal rank with the literary German. He further insists that the classical movement proceeds from the people at large; the rioters some twelve months ago in the interests of the "Gospel Language" being not the ecclesiastical or academic authorities, but the rank and file of the people, who understand the literary Greek just as well as the North German peasant understands the language of the pulpit, the court, and the press. Every attempt to establish newspapers in the popular dialect of Greece has failed. The editor, in commenting on this article of Nikolaides in No. 58, states that Professor Krumbacher will continue the discussion.

The publication house of Hermann Seemann in Leipzig announces that it will soon issue a collection of writings and speeches of President Roosevelt, under the general title of 'Der Amerikanismus.' The translator is Paul Raché, who will also furnish a lengthy introduction. A specimen of the contents, a chapter entitled "Die Monroe Lehre," is published in the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 63, and shows fairly good work, along with unmistakable evidences of translation. The other chapters are headed: "Der Wahre Amerikanismus; Der Amerikanische Junge; Das Volle Leben; Volksleben und Volkscharakter."

The interesting news comes from Stockholm that the Swedish authorities have decided to establish in that city an Arctic Museum on a grand scale, in which the imposing collections brought from the Arctic regions by Scandinavian investigators are to be deposited and arranged systematically. The majority of these treasures are to be found in the Royal Museum of Natural Sciences in Stockholm where the late Professor Nordenskjöld succeeded in putting the geographical and biological sections into good shape; but other finds, especially those brought from Spitzbergen, Greenland, Jan Mayen, Nova Zembla, and Siberia, are in the university collections of Upsala and Lund. The Arctic collections of Sweden are the most complete in the world, and are as unique in that line as the art treasures of the Vatican and the antiquities in the British Museum. The Swedish navigators have been systematically engaged in this work since the beginning of the last century.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April contains a report by Mr. Macalister of the progress of the excavation of Gezer. He has no important discovery to chronicle, but describes the arrangement of the ancient buildings, the city walls, and the objects found, among which was a curious stone whistle. An interesting note on the famous Gate of Nicanor in the Temple of Jerusalem is contributed by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau, apropos of finding an ossuary inscribed with that name in a sepulchral cave in the neighborhood of the city. Major-Gen. Sir C. W. Wilson shows that the Golgotha and the Holy Sepulchre referred to by Eusebius in his *Life of Constantine* are identical with the traditional sites of the present day. In the "Immovable East," by P. G. Baldensperger, are sketched the different handicrafts mentioned in the Bible and still practised in Palestine. Our consul, Dr. Selah Merrill, notes the discovery of an immense charnel-house near Jerusalem.

Part II. of the second volume of the Korean Asiatic Society's Transactions (New York: George Stechert) contains two notable papers. The Rev. J. S. Gale, the linguist, furnishes an historical and descriptive paper on Seoul, accompanied by a map which enables the English reader to get a tolerably clear idea of the great city and its surroundings, and of the principal edifices and numerous "neighborhoods" within its walls. The map is a reproduction of one by a native cartographer, but the division into eighty-one squares, with a numeral and an alphabetic key at the top and sides, enables one readily to find a place or name. Palaces, temples, city gates, bridges, business quarters, are marked. One is impressed with the enormous antiquity of the place, even though it has been the national capital only under the present dynasty, beginning in 1392. "Type Neighborhood," if not named after the movable or "living" types which were used in Korea before Gutenberg was born, refers to the wooden stereotype blocks made by the printers of the neighborhood. As fascinating in literary style as it is philosophical in tone and exhaustive in its comprehensive outlines, is a paper on Korean Folk Tales by Prof. H. B. Hulbert. He groups the miscellaneous collection in "the back attic of Korean folk-lore, . . . for the same family has occupied the house for forty centuries, and there has never been an auction," under six heads, Confucian, Buddhist, Shamanistic, legendary, mythical, and general. The Confucian stories are extraordinarily "Sunday-schoolish," of a sort somewhat out of date among us. "After one gets a little used to the formulæ, the first few lines of a story reveal to him the whole plot, including commencement, complications, climax, catastrophe, and conclusion." The Buddhist tales show a larger volume and a wider range, for here the imagination has freer play and a greater dramatic effect is possible. "To-day ten stories hinge upon Buddhism where one borrows its motive from Confucian principles." Of stories reminding one of the Holy Grail, there are several. Among the highly accomplished animals, the fox, toad, serpent, wild boar, and tiger are always bad, while the dragon, rabbit, frog and deer are always good.

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The Association for Maintaining the American Woman's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples awarded, last month, the place to Dr. Grace Emily Cooley, professor of botany at Wellesley College, and the prize of $1,000 for the best scientific research work done by a woman, offered two years ago, to Dr. Florence R. Sabin, assistant in anatomy at the Johns Hopkins Medical School, for "an investigation on the origin of the lymphatic system embodying a discovery of far-reaching importance, believed to be the most important contribution yet made to the morphology of that system." Dr. Sabin is a graduate of Smith College. The prize offer is renewed, for award in 1905.

—The seventh and concluding volume of Doubleday, Page & Co.'s 'Variorum and Definitive Edition of the Poetical and Prose Writings of Edward FitzGerald' is the thinnest of the set. Prose predominates, and includes the exemplary memoir of Bernard Barton and obituary notices of the Rev. George Crabbe, and the account of Percival Stockdale, which even Leslie Stephen might envy as a pithy summary fit for the Dictionary of National Biography. There are also the introduction to 'Readings from Crabbe,' in which the variant seems hopelessly entangled with the *editio princeps* by some juggle of the press; and the Lamb Calendar. The verse consists of early original pieces, none of which would have secured FitzGerald a single-poem fame; least of all "Bredfield Hall," in spite of the author's own preference for it above any independent work of his. Yet some of them would be hailed by compilers of unhackneyed anthologies, and all illustrate the personal and poetic side of this man of deep feeling and strong friendships. His transfusing, as his filing, habit is shown in two paraphrases of the speech of Æmilius Paullus from Livy (which, by the way, are not collocated in the very inadequate index); and in the sonnet from Petrarch, which cannot be thought to preclude one closer to the Italian. The Bibliography is another distinguishing feature of this volume. And so we take leave of an enterprise well conceived in many respects, beautifully but not faultlessly printed, and an indispensable possession for all who revere FitzGerald's name and genius, though lacking the Letters, for which we must go to Mr. Aldis Wright's latest edition of the Works, now nearing completion from the press of Macmillan.

—Eliza R. Scidmore's 'Winter India' (The Century Co.) was doubtless pleasant to write and is likewise pleasant to read. For one who knows the sights described, which lie on the "regular Indian round," it recalls them distinctly enough, though it is doubtful whether the descriptions would raise a vivid image of them in the home-stayer. Miss Scidmore makes much of the discomforts of Indian travel as compared with American. We, who have tried both, would give our preference the other way. Indian travel taken in Indian fashion is perfectly comfortable; and Indian hotels, though not comparable to the Waldorf or the Carlton, are superior to the hotels of small New England towns. Indian service is the perfection of service. Indian politeness surpasses all other, though it only made Miss Scidmore mad when she was called "My lady." Is she mad in France when they call her "Madame"? The book may well be useful to intending travellers. It indicates a well-planned route, though omitting Kashmir, the very pearl of India. It adopts conventional judgments, but not unfair ones. More should have been said of the excellence of the early Moslem architecture of Old Delhi and its superiority to most of that of the Moghuls. The wonderful cities of Rajputana are perhaps hardly enough brought out. But the book is a good book of its kind; no one will regret reading it.

—Mrs. Aubrey Le Blond, the widow of Col. Burnaby, has an established reputation among lady climbers. In 'True Tales of Mountain Adventure for Non-climbers, Young and Old' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), she writes graphically, and she is a mountain photographer of exceptional merit. The reproductions of her photographs here printed do the originals no sort of justice. The text is readable, and will be found interesting by the general reader, for whom it is intended. Much of it consists of classical stories of mountain adventure extracted from the published works of writers of repute. The authoress has also adventures of her own to record. She does not mind using the language of lowland people. She is not ashamed to talk of "danger" where the actual risk may have been very small or actually *nil*, but the appearance or idea of danger was doubtless really present. In these days it is surprising how many folks who never were above the level of perpetual snow, read with avidity books on mountaineering. There seems to exist (so the publishers say) a definite and not small class of such readers. This is the very book for them. It will give them the very thrill they want. It is not untrue; it is not even disproportionate in its treatment of incidents. As a matter of fact, much of the time spent in climbing high mountains is spent in very dull plodding. The interesting hours are a small proportion of the whole. The exciting moments are very widely scattered. Here the exciting moments are singled out and compressed together. The result is a book which will be liked by people who like that sort of book.

—'Om Amerika' (About America), by Carl Fischer-Hansen, published simultaneously by Brentano in New York and by the Gyldendalske Boghandel in Copenhagen, a volume of 253 pages, aims, in the first place, to give the author's countrymen at home a clearer and more correct idea about things and institutions in America than is obtainable from works previously existing, and in the second place to make it easier for Danish immigrants to obtain such information about the United States as most of them will be likely to desire, and the acquisition of which would involve long years of experience with much fruitless search. Few if any literatures are so rich in books intended to give information about the United States as the Danish, almost every Danish journalist, actor, or artist who visits this country feeling called upon to record, on his return, his impressions of it; but these productions cannot, as a rule, lay claim to accuracy. The present book contains in thirteen chapters remarkably full and mostly correct information about the Union, the individual States, the currency, banking, legal institutions compared with those of Denmark, the bar (*i. e.*, the lawyers as a class), stock companies and Trusts, Stock Exchange speculation, religious matters, schools, universities, literature, and the army. It is to be feared that the price of the book will prevent it from reaching as many immigrants as were to be wished, while on the other hand the fact that the language throughout—except in the chapter dealing with American literature—bears witness to the author's long sojourn away from his native land, will probably deter many readers on the other side of the ocean. Of misstatements we have noticed a few unimportant ones. Page 121, New York city is said to be the "district" of the District Attorney; page 143, one-half of the Lutherans in the United States are said to be Germans, the other half Scandinavians, *Irishmen*, and Finns; here Irishmen (Irlændere) might be thought a misprint for Icelanders (Islændere), though even so we do not see why they should not be counted among the Scandinavians. Page 194, Mr. Carnegie is said to have given $10,000,000 to establish a *university* in Washington, D. C. Page 197, students' societies, we are told, often have as a name *one* of the three Greek letters, alpha, beta, or kappa.

—Prof. J. B. Bury, lately inaugurated as Regius professor at Cambridge, began with a lecture on the "Science of History," which affords an interesting glimpse of the present position of historical study as mapped out by a representative modern historian. Having not unhandsomely acquitted himself of his duty to the memory of the late Lord Acton, his predecessor, he spoke of "far-reaching changes in the geography of thought" initiated during the nineteenth century, and especially of the "transformation and expansion of history," not complete as yet, and still in many places ignored or unrealized. Before the last century, criticism, even in Muratori, Ducange, and Tillemont, not to be named without warm gratitude, was sporadic and capricious. To Germany and Wolf's 'Prolegomena' was due the systematized method which issued in the microscopic criticism now deemed indispensable. But there was a preparation of minds, due in part to Puritanism and partly to Rationalism, which also helped toward the elevation of all standards of truth in history, our real modern point of vantage. The spirit of resurgent nationality, characteristic of the nineteenth century, and not even now inactive, had enforced the unity and continuity of history upon patriotic minds, and swept them beyond the outlived conception of history as "philosophy by examples," as the material for political and moral science. The science of history could as little be the handmaid of literary art as of social science, he maintained. Mommsen, whom he called "the greatest living historian," derived his reputation from the 'Corpus,' the 'Staatsrecht,' and the 'Chronicles,' rather than from "that dazzling work," his Roman history. This all had come about through the "new transfiguring conception" of human development, started by Leibnitz, but first acclaimed by the nineteenth century, when it appears as the true solvent of the anti-historical doctrines arrayed during the French Revolution "against the compul-

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sion of the past." This brought history into line with other sciences, and freed it from political and ethical encumbrances. The nineteenth century A. D. would rank with the fifth century B. C. in the annals of historical study. Both marked "a stage in the growth of man's self-consciousness." Perhaps the most striking and inspiring passage came toward the end, where Professor Bury declared that "the humblest student of history may feel assured that he is not working only for his own time; he may feel that he has an interest to consult and a cause to advance beyond the interest and cause of his own age." Remarkable also, as inspired by the instant and novel requirements of the hour, was his proclamation of the absolute identity between history and archæology, which last has a distinct name and place solely because it requires a special training.

—The publication, in a convenient octavo volume, with delightfully clear typography, of a general index to the first thirteen years of *Le Droit d'Auteur* directs attention to this most excellent periodical issued by the Bureau of the International Copyright Union at Berne, Switzerland. The monthly numbers of the magazine appear in a three-columned quarto page slightly larger than that of the *Nation*, the contents arranged in two divisions—"Partie officielle," containing the French texts of laws, ordinances, administrative decrees, treaties, etc.; and "Partie non-officielle," consisting of contributed monographs upon special points in copyright law, summaries of copyright decisions by the courts of various countries, and a record of all movements the world over affecting the protection of literary and artistic property. Of special note are the detailed summaries of the annual book production of the principal countries. The index seems an excellent piece of work. The first one hundred pages contain references to the contents of the journal from 1888 to 1900, arranged alphabetically under about 300 catchwords, with sub-alphabets under each, the eye being aided by a discriminating use of italic type. Then follows, as a second division, a table of official documents—laws, treaties, ordinances, etc.—arranged chronologically under an alphabet of countries, 372 separate documents being recorded. Finally, there is a chronological list of court decisions reported and commented on, with an alphabetical index of parties to the suits. *Le Droit d'Auteur*, which is published at the cost of the Berne Bureau, maintained by a pro-rata charge upon each of the countries of the International Copyright Union, is issued at the nominal subscription price of 5.60 francs per year. But libraries are now given an opportunity to secure full sets of the fourteen volumes, including the index, for 50 francs in lieu of 77.80 francs, so long as the limited stock holds out; thus permitting about 2,000 quarto pages of copyright literature, most of it of permanent value, together with this useful index, to be obtained for the sum of ten dollars. Some of the yearly volumes are understood to be already nearly exhausted; hence librarians should take prompt steps to secure sets of this admirably conducted publication, which forms one of the best collections of printed documents relating to copyright.

—The vexed question of the transliteration of Greek words has come under the consideration of a committee of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies, which was lately intrusted by the Council with the preparation of a scheme to be adopted in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*. The scheme as adopted and now in use by the editors of the *Journal* pays due regard to the literary traditions of English scholarship. Therefore, being of the nature of a compromise, it allows in most cases a considerable latitude of usage. Its first general principle is laid down as follows: (A) "All Greek proper names should be transliterated into the Latin alphabet according to the practice of educated Romans of the Augustan age." κ=*c*; υ, αι, οι, ου=*y*, *ae*, *oe*, *u*; final ος and ον=*us* and *um*; ρος=*er*. To this rule should attach three exceptional considerations: (*a*) The diphthong *ei*, which under this rule would be either *e* or *i*, should be transliterated by *ei*, except in names like *Laodicea*, *Alexandria*, where there is a clearly established usage; words ending in ειον must be transliterated with the termination *eum*. (*b*) Discretion should rule as to occasionally retaining *os* and the like, especially in cases like Delos, where Augustan usage favors the form with *o*; Latin usage should similarly be followed as far as possible in *e* and *a* terminations, *e. g.*, Priene, Smyrna; in obscure names in ρος, such as Λέαγρος, *er* should be avoided as likely to produce confusion; the Greek form *on* is to be preferred to *o* for names like Dion, Hieron, except in a name so common as Apollo, where it would be pedantic. (*c*) Names having a definite English form, such as Corinth, Athens, should not be otherwise represented, but it is hardly necessary to point out that names like Hercules, Mercury, Minerva should not be used for Heracles, Hermes, and Athena. (B) Though names of gods should be transliterated as other proper names are, personifications and epithets like Nike, Homonoia, Hyakinthios have their special rule. (C) No accents should be used to show quantity; the circumflex is especially objectionable. (D) Greek words other than proper names, used as names of personification or technical terms, should be transliterated letter for letter—κ=*k*; υ=*y*; ου=*u*. *E. g.*, Nike, apoxyomenos, diadumenos, rhyton. But this rule should not be rigidly enforced in the case of Greek words in common English use, such as ægis, symposium. It would also be necessary to preserve *ou*=ου in such definitely established words as *boule*, *gerousia*.

THE OLD BISMARCK AND THE NEW GERMANY.

Personal Reminiscences of Prince Bismarck. By Sidney Whitman. D. Appleton & Co. 1903. Pp. 346.

Germany: The Welding of a World Power. By Wolf von Schierbrand. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902. Pp. 376.

Whitman's 'Imperial Germany,' which was written fifteen years ago and which reached a second edition in 1891, pleased Bismarck and secured for its author an invitation to visit the ex-Chancellor in his retirement. This first visit made him what the Germans call a "house-friend," and from 1891 to 1896 he was Bismarck's guest at Friedrichsruh, Varzin, or Schönhausen, on not less than nine occasions. He witnessed in 1895 the wonderful celebration of the Prince's eightieth birthday—a tribute of national reverence and affection such as no other private citizen ever received in any country during his lifetime—and three years later he stood with Prince Herbert beside the old Prince's coffin.

In the work before us Whitman has recorded his recollections of these visits, and his impressions, not only of the Prince and his family, but of other house-friends: notably of Lothar Bucher, the revolutionary of '48 and later the Imperial Chancellor's "right hand," and of the painter Lenbach, from whom he obtained some of his best material and to whom he appropriately dedicates this volume. To our knowledge of Bismarck little is added. The author's picture of a loving and considerate husband and father, a genial and attentive host, a kind and beloved landlord, a man of so warm a heart that he was troubled by a passing glimpse (in driving) of a stranger, a workingman, who looked ill; the assertion that the "dominant memory" which the author carried away from every visit was of Bismarck's "moderation and refinement"; the judgment quoted from Dr. Schweninger, "that in his composition there was something of the tenderness of the woman, much of the *naïveté* of the child, and all the qualities of the man"—these views may surprise those who are wont to think of the great German as a Titanic bully; but to those who are at all familiar with the Bismarck literature, with the utterances of his friends and with his private letters, this side of Bismarck's character is already well known. That the ex-Chancellor's last years were sad ones, we knew already, although we have had perhaps no such outspoken confession as that which Bismarck made to Lenbach: "There is only one happy day left for me. It is the one on which I shall not wake up again."

The book is disappointing in that it contains so few of the striking phrases which nearly every other writer who heard Bismarck talk has been able to remember and record. We cannot expect, in a single generation, more than one such graphophone as Boswell or Busch, but Whitman is not even a fairly good reporter. We credit his claim that he has withheld from publication some interesting confidences because they were confidences, and we respect him for a reticence which neither Boswell nor Busch would have found intelligible; but we have a significant confession that when, on one occasion, the author jotted down a few memoranda, he found himself subsequently unable to remember what some of them meant (p. 266). It is therefore not surprising to find that of this book of reminiscences a considerable part is padding.

Of some of the minor personages the book tells us more that is new, because of them so much less has hitherto been written. The simple, strong, and somewhat eccentric personality of the old Princess is made very vivid; and of that obscure great man, Bucher, also, the author gives us an attractive sketch. From Bucher we have a judgment, prejudiced, of course, but interesting, of the present Emperor:

"The dominant influence with us at present [1892] is a queer mixture of cunning and impressionability, leading to rapid generalization based upon the observation and knowledge of the surface of things.

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This in its turn leads to impulsive action" (p. 165).

Schierbrand is a good reporter, and from his three interviews with the old Bismarck in the nineties he carried away some good "copy" (pp. 350-356), which, so far as we know, has heretofore appeared only in the newspapers. American politics, Bismarck confessed, had always been "a sealed book" to him; but as far as he could pretend to understand them, they seemed to him "decadent." Cleveland, in his opinion, had "the stuff in him out of which statesmen are made," but was "thrown away in a republic." In May, 1898, less than three months before the Prince's death, his views were obtained (in spite of the opposition of his physician and his family, who were trying to shield him from fatiguing excitement) concerning the Spanish-American War. He regarded the course pursued by the United States as indefensible. Spanish misgovernment of Cuba was a mere pretext. "Colonies have often been mismanaged, and I suppose that the Americans, when they shall have colonies, will not be exempt. But that is no fair reason for dispossessing the owner. . . . Spoils, spoils—all else is pretence." His remarks about the Monroe Doctrine, which he described as an "insolent dogma," were equally interesting. The Doctrine had flourished only because of dissensions in Europe. A union of two strong naval powers like England and France could at any moment have made an end of it. On this occasion Schierbrand found Bismarck "bent and shrunken"; his hands trembled, his voice was "raucous and hollow"; but his "steel-blue eyes still shot fire," and "his intellectual faculties were unimpaired." This is not the domestic Bismarck of Whitman's acquaintance; it is the other, the public, Bismarck.

Schierbrand's book is an attempt to describe the Germany of to-day. For comprehending it, he has the advantage of German birth and education. For interpreting it to Americans, he has the advantage of long residence in the United States, and an acceptance in the main of the American point of view. He is chiefly interested in Germany's remarkable economic development and in the resulting changes in social life, but he touches also upon Germany's constitutional organization and its politics. In his discussion of German politics he seems to have been unable to escape from his early prepossessions. Only a *Fortschrittler* of the old school could allege, as he does, that the Fortschritt party (which until 1866 held the majority of seats in the Prussian Chamber of Deputies) caused Prussia to be recognized all over Germany as the champion of political progress, and that "this moral factor had as much to do as all others together in giving Prussia her hegemony, and in bringing about the formation of the North German Confederation" (p. 70). In view of the facts that this party opposed every step which the Prussian Government took towards Prussian hegemony, and that the Government realized its aims only by overriding the parliamentary opposition and disregarding the Constitution, the author can only mean that the rest of Germany was willing to come under Prussian hegemony because there were so many good Liberals in Prussia. It is hard to believe that the helpless and discredited Liberal party in Prussia exercised any such attraction, and all the contemporary evidence indicates that the Liberals of the smaller German States anticipated from Prussian hegemony the reëstablishment of absolute government throughout Germany.

Starting with this twisted construction of the facts, the author is naturally unable to account for the weakness of the Liberal party since 1878, except on the ground that its leaders have forsaken the ancient standards. To an outsider the phenomenon seems capable of a simpler explanation. The Germans who reached the voting age (25) between 1868 and 1893, and who are now from thirty-five to sixty years old, grew up during or immediately after the unification of Germany by the Prussian Crown and the Prussian army. They saw, and still see, in that achievement the complete justification of intelligently directed absolutism. They naturally have little faith in popular government. The National Liberal party, which after 1866 absorbed all the more intelligent elements of the Fortschritt, became increasingly conservative, not because its leaders changed their principles, but because an increasing proportion of their constituents had come to believe in Crown government. Under such circumstances a new popular party of opposition could develop only along lines of class antagonism, as it is to-day developing in the Social-Democratic party. It is probably in this party, which is yearly becoming less socialistic and more democratic, that the leaders of the new Radical-Liberal party will be found, and not, as the author expects (p. 363), in the left wing of the present Liberal remnant.

It is not in this matter only that the author's digressions into history are open to criticism. That *one* of the old German Emperors was a Luxemburger (p. 150), is an odd understatement. That the little principality of Reuss-Greiz, which sided with Austria in 1866, is still, in theory, at war with Prussia (p. 307), is a legend so amusing that it seems a pity to discredit it; but, as a matter of fact, Reuss-Greiz made peace by a formal treaty on September 26, 1866. Another unhistorical legend which the author repeats is that the Ultramontane or Centre party was "formed" as a result of the *Kulturkampf* (p. 79).

When Schierbrand touches upon law, he is often equally inaccurate. The assertion that Bismarck, in his Reminiscences, inferentially takes a position favorable to "pure parliamentary" government (p. 30), is based on a failure to distinguish between Constitutional and Parliamentary Government. The statement that the German Emperor has the power to declare war (p. 24) is misleading; it should be added that the consent of the Federal Council is necessary, except when an attack has been made on the territory of the empire or on its coasts. It is misleading, again, to say that the Emperor has no power to veto legislative measures (*ibid.*). His seventeen Prussian votes in the Federal Council enable him to defeat any amendment to the Constitution; and as the head (*Präsidium*) of the Council he has an absolute veto on changes of the military, naval, customs, or excise laws. In discussing the Prussian election laws, the author says that those who do not pay a certain minimum of direct taxes have no votes, not even in the third class (p. 74). This is true as regards municipal voting, but not as regards voting for the electors who choose the members of the Prussian Chamber of Deputies. The sketch of the movement for securing uniform civil law for the whole empire (p. 171) is very confused. In referring to the various systems which existed before 1900, the Roman law is disguised under the strange title of the "Imperial Law Collection"; and, while the number of legal systems is not exaggerated, the number of "codes" is greatly overstated. There were not sixteen leading codes, nor was there "a number" of other codes. The new Civil Code, in force since 1900, is incorrectly said to have established uniform law in several fields which had long before been covered by imperial legislation, *e. g.*, marriage, and bankruptcy and other commercial matters. Bankruptcy and commercial law are, in fact, not covered in the new Civil Code.

Among other *errata* we may notice the statements that Prince George, recently deceased, was the uncle of the present Crown Prince of Prussia (p. 307), and that he was the uncle of the present Emperor (p. 308); and that the German colonies of East Africa and of Southwest Africa are in north latitudes (pp. 291, 292). A theory which will strike non-Germans as being more ingenious than plausible is that the German, as such, is a modest person, and that the arrogance of the Prussians is due to infiltration of Slavic blood (p. 131). It is the common and, we think, the correct impression that the arrogance of the Prussians, like that of other people, has varied with their power, and particularly with their success in war. Prussian arrogance seems to have begun with the Great Elector, to have increased under Frederick the Great, to have abated sensibly after Jena, and to have reached its present height soon after 1866. Some of the other Germans, who are not charged with miscegenation, have shown signs of arrogance since 1870. The English began to be arrogant at a much earlier period, and some foreigners assert that the Americans are growing arrogant.

The chapters dealing with Germany's economic and social conditions and prospects, which make up the larger part of this book, constitute also its best part. The great changes of the last thirty years—the transformation of the empire from an agricultural into an industrial state, its entrance into active competition in the markets of the world, its rapidly accumulating wealth, and the resultant growth of refinement in manners and corruption in morals—all these changes are vividly portrayed. Here again the author has advantages over a foreigner or a German who has remained at home. The foreigner does not know the old Germany; and to the home-staying German the magnitude of the transformation is obscured by his familiarity with its successive stages. On the questions that most interest Americans—the position and prospects of Germany in the contest for the markets of the world and in the development of colonial empire—the author's conclusions are (to us) reassuring. Superior technical education and more perfect industrial and commercial organization give the Germans advantages over their English and American competitors, but these advantages are more than offset by the German

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lack of initiative. Germany has as yet shown no capacity to establish outposts that promise to attain importance; the development of its colonies is checked by *Assessorenthum* or bureaucracy, *i. e.*, by too much governing.

The book is full of statistics. We have tested the author's accuracy in two instances only, and in one of these the result is disquieting. He says on page 92 that the imperial budget for 1898-99 reached the total of 4,980,000,000 marks. These figures bear no resemblance to the receipts or expenditures, estimated or actual, of that fiscal year; but in the 'Statesman's Year Book' for 1901 the estimated revenue for 1900-01 is stated to have been 1,979,135,000 marks. The author has apparently rounded this estimate into 1,980,000,000 marks, and retrodated it by two years—and the printer has done the rest.

One of the good things about both of the books under review is that they plead for peace and concord between the three great kindred nations—the German, the British, and the American. To-day governments all over the world are working for peace. The danger of war lies largely in the dislike and suspicion with which every people regards other peoples. This attitude toward the foreigner is, of course, as old as the human race; but it has become particularly perilous in our day, because nations, in spite of their increasing size, are growing more homogeneous and more solidary. In addition to this, they feel and will more rapidly than ever before; electricity and the newspapers have given to each national body a nervous system which responds in a day to any strong suggestion. Nothing is easier or more popular than to increase international prejudices and excite international hatred. Nothing is better worth while than to aid in creating, in one nation, that sympathetic comprehension of another nation which destroys ignorant prejudices and allays unfounded suspicions.

THE PUBLICATIONS OF THE IRISH TEXTS SOCIETY.

Giolla an Fhiugha, or, The Lad of the Ferule.—Eachtra Cloinne Righ na h-Ioruaidhe, or, Adventures of the Children of the King of Norway. Edited, with translation, notes, and glossary, by Douglas Hyde, LL.D., M.R.I.A., etc. 1899.

Fled Bricrend (The Feast of Bricriu). Edited, with translation, introduction, and notes, by George Henderson, M.A., Ph.D., etc. 1899.

Dánta Aodhagáin úi Rathaille (The Poems of Egan O'Rahilly). Edited, with introduction, translation, notes, and glossary, by Rev. Patrick S. Dinneen, M.A. 1900.

Foras Feasa ar Eirinn, le Seathrún Céitinn, D.D. (Keating's History of Ireland). Volume I., containing the Introduction and the first book of the History. Edited, with translation and notes, by David Comyn, M.R.I.A. 1902.

In 1893, when making his inaugural address as first President of the Irish Literary Society in London, the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke described a number of objects which he thought might well be cherished by such an organization. He dwelt upon the importance to Ireland, and indirectly to the whole world of letters, of building up a national and traditional Irish literature in the English tongue. To this end he advocated in particular the following undertakings: The publication of ancient Irish texts with good, faithful translations; the literary treatment in English of native Irish material, either in episodic poems like Ferguson's 'Conary,' or in larger epic compilations similar to Malory's 'Morte Darthur'; the collection of folk-tales while they can still be obtained from oral sources; and the republication of much of the Anglo-Irish poetry of the last two centuries.

In the ten years that have elapsed since this interesting address was delivered, Mr. Brooke's programme has been fulfilled in larger measure than one might have hoped. To be sure, not much that is notable has meanwhile been done in the free literary treatment of Irish saga-material. For Sir Samuel Ferguson was already dead when Mr. Brooke spoke, and his 'Deirdre' and 'Conary' still stand among the very best attempts at Irish epic in English verse. Mr. Yeats, too, who is peculiarly endowed for the interpretation of some elements in the Celtic nature, had published his 'Wanderings of Ossian' before 1893. The Irish Literary Theatre, an institution of more recent growth, has not yet succeeded in getting a large hearing for its dramas based upon episodes in Irish romance. It also remains to be seen how much vital interest is possessed by Lady Gregory's late volume, 'Cuchulain of Muirthemne,' which, if it should gain wide acceptance at all, might come to be regarded as a kind of vulgate of the older Irish saga cycle for English readers. But if work has been rather tentative, and progress small, on the side of pure literature, it is possible to make a better report of Mr. Brooke's other projects which belong more particularly to the field of scholarship. He himself, in collaboration with Mr. T. W. Rolleston and a number of contributors, has edited an admirable 'Treasury of Irish Poetry,' which contains the best of the Anglo-Irish verse since the popular songs of "ninety-eight." In the collection of folk-lore there has been steady activity. Although no such compilation of Irish tales yet exists as was made by Campbell for the West Highlands of Scotland, still—thanks to the late William Larminie, Dr. Douglas Hyde, and a dozen others—a large number of stories have now been taken down in various parts of Ireland and made accessible in either Gaelic or English. The movement for the revival of the Irish language (which seems to have entered very little into Mr. Brooke's reckoning) has given an impulse both to the collection and to the publication of these traditional tales.

Of all Mr. Brooke's proposals, however, the one of most immediate importance was probably the first, which contemplated the formation of an association, like the Early English Text Society, to secure the publication and translation of the great body of Irish literature, still largely unknown, but rich in materials for the use alike of the historical scholar and of the literary artist. We do not know whether the foundation of the Irish Texts Society was at all due to Mr. Brooke's influence, and we do not mean to claim for any one the credit for its organization; but we are glad to be able to record that, within ten years of this address upon the subject, such a society is securely established, and four volumes of its annual publications have seen the light. They are a good indication of the kind of texts which the Society will be chiefly called upon to publish. They represent some of the most interesting types of Gaelic literature, and, in three out of the four cases at least, are very good specimens of their types.

The first volume contains two modern romantic tales edited by Dr. Douglas Hyde, the President of the Society, and one of the most productive of Gaelic editors and writers. The interest of these stories is almost solely linguistic or historical. They are long, very fanciful, and so disorderly as to be hard to follow. In short, they represent a somewhat debased form of the romantic sagas of an earlier period, and as such they best repay study. One of them, "The Lad of the Ferule," belongs in part to the cycle of Celtic other-world adventures which once had considerable influence on French and English romances of chivalry, and it has been examined from this point of view by Dr. A. C. L. Brown in his forthcoming dissertation on "Sir Ywain."

The second volume contains Dr. Henderson's edition of 'The Feast of Bricriu,' an excellent old Irish Saga of the best period. The interest of the story is great, and its historical bearings important. It was a good selection with which to begin the Society's series of older texts. But the editor's work is in many respects unsatisfactory, and, in view of the competence he has manifested in Scottish Gaelic publications, most disappointing. His text is hardly as good as that published by Windisch in 1881. The translation is frequently inaccurate or infelicitous. The introductory chapters are by no means thorough or final, and the whole question of the compilation of the saga has been already reopened by Thurneysen in the *Zeitschrift für Celtische Philologie.*

The editor of the third volume, which contains the poems of Egan O'Rahilly, was confronted with the very different task of collecting from scattered manuscripts the works of a popular modern poet. Father Dinneen, by virtue of his intimate knowledge of both language and people in O'Rahilly's country, was specially equipped for the work, and has done it well. He has not undertaken to go into questions of historical grammar, or in general to do more than interpret his author's meaning, but his translation and notes will furnish grammarians and lexicographers with much valuable information about living usages. In his literary comments Father Dinneen gives an estimate of the poetic value of O'Rahilly's work, with which we cannot fully agree; yet in our gratitude for the product of his "lungo studio" we are not disposed to criticise his "grand' amore." Beyond a doubt there is much in O'Rahilly's verse—and the remark may be extended to most modern Gaelic poets—which, if judged by classic standards, is crude and inartistic, and which, from any point of view, is utterly commonplace. But the best of this Irish poetry, including some of O'Rahilly's, has great charm and human interest. In metrical structure it stands quite apart from the familiar verse-forms of Western Europe. Moreover, its substance can hardly be neglected by the historian of Ireland,

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for it is the genuine expression of the native Gaelic people during the generations of British rule.

The most welcome of the works thus far issued by the society will undoubtedly be Keating's 'History of Ireland,' the first part of which constitutes the fourth volume of the publications. Keating has long been recognized as the greatest writer of Gaelic prose in the modern period, and his works have been widely circulated in manuscript; but until lately they have been by no means easily accessible in print. In 1890 Prof. Robert Atkinson brought out an admirable edition of 'The Three Shafts of Death,' which, with its grammatical appendixes and exhaustive vocabulary, furnishes one of the best existing introductions to the modern Irish language; and in 1898 a convenient, though rather imperfect text of 'An Explanatory Defence of the Mass' was issued by Patrick O'Brien in Dublin. In 1900 a small volume of Keating's poems, very competently edited by the Rev. J. C. MacErlean, was published under the auspices of the Gaelic League. But of the 'History of Ireland'—a work of more general interest than any of the preceding—no complete Irish text has been printed, and Haliday's unfinished edition of 1811 has become extremely rare. For a knowledge of the contents of the work it has been necessary to depend upon two English translations, both rare and one exceedingly inaccurate. Mr. Comyn, therefore, if he carries his undertaking to a successful issue, will be rendering a memorable service to Irish studies. His first volume does not go beyond the point reached in Haliday's edition. We are bound to say that we do not feel quite sure of the principles by which Mr. Comyn has been guided in the establishment of his text, and we should like to see a more thoroughgoing study of the manuscript tradition than his brief preface provides. Perhaps this will be supplied in one of the later volumes. For practical purposes, in the meantime, the reader is sufficiently guided by the variants recorded on every page. We look forward with interest to the volumes in which Mr. Comyn, to use his own term, will have to "break new ground."

For the excellent appearance of this important series a word of recognition is due to the house of David Nutt, which is honorably associated with other publications in the field of Celtic scholarship.

Studies in Contemporary Biography By James Bryce. The Macmillan Co. 1903.

This is one of Mr. Bryce's best books—which is saying a great deal. Most of the sketches had already appeared in print (many of them in the *Nation*); but these have been, as the author explains in his preface, enlarged and revised, some indeed "virtually rewritten." The result is that the collection has all the freshness of a new book. Many of the studies relate to men who passed from the scene twenty years ago. Of the six which deal with politicians, those on Gladstone and Disraeli are the most important, but all are worth reading, even that on Anthony Trollope (a well-worn subject), in which Mr. Bryce makes an excursus into the literature of fiction which may fairly be called, notwithstanding his great literary gifts, alien to his talents.

It is in political portraiture that he is at his best, and above all in the portraiture of House of Commons men. In this atmosphere he has lived and moved for many years, history and government are the subjects to which he has devoted his life, and consequently, when he analyzes the career of the two statesmen we have mentioned, of Robert Lowe, or of Parnell, it is with the hand not merely of a skilful writer, but of a master. But we have hardly reached this conclusion when we are forced to recall that his sketch of Mr. Godkin, not only not a House of Commons man, but a journalist, and an American journalist at that, is almost equally good. In fact, in the end, perhaps what strikes us most is the even merit and occasional striking excellence of whatever Mr. Bryce undertakes to do.

For biography he has peculiar talents, especially of style. In this respect he maintains the best traditions of English writing. He is lucid, simple, unaffected, and never weak. On the other hand, he has no secret or mystery to reveal, he writes no jargon of his own, he is no lover of novelties; and he has a profound belief in reason and right—altogether, one might think, not at all in the fashion. Yet the reader, if he be of the same turn of mind, may be consoled by the reflection that as an author Mr. Bryce long since attained a hold upon the public which promises to be permanent.

It is difficult to know exactly what to quote from a book which is rather to be read as a whole than in isolated passages, but we will content ourselves with giving one or two instances of a merit rarely found in modern biography, and for memorable examples of which we have to go back to St. Simon, or possibly to Plutarch—that of painting the *character* of the subject in a few strokes, which bring its features into a relief almost like that of a face on canvas.

"He never feared to give battle, even when he expected defeat, if he deemed it necessary (with a view to the future) that the judgment of his party should have been pronounced in a formal way. On the other hand, he was wary of committing himself to a policy of blind or obstinate resistance. When he perceived that the time had come to yield, he knew how to yield with a good grace, so as both *to support a character for reasonableness* and to obtain valuable concessions as the price of peace."

This is one aspect; now turn to another:

"He had studied the House of Commons till he knew it as a player knows his instrument—studied it collectively, for it has a collective character, and studied the men who compose it; their worse rather than their better side, their prejudices, their foibles, their vanities, their ambitions, their jealousies—above all, that curious corporate pride which they have, and which makes them resent any approach to dictation. He could play on every one of these strings, and yet so as to conceal his skill, and he so economized himself as to make them always wish to hear him. He knew how, in a body of men obliged to listen to talk, and most of it tedious talk, about matters in themselves mostly uninteresting, the desire for a little amusement becomes almost a passion, and he humored this desire so as occasionally to err by excess of banter and flippancy."

It is hardly necessary to say who this is, but if it be thought that a man well known to everybody is easier to paint than one comparatively obscure, let him turn to any one of those with whom he is least familiar. For instance, to most American readers, T. H. Green is a mere name. After reading Mr. Bryce's sketch—the essential part of which lies within the limits of a single page—his image remains imbedded in the mind.

If Mr. Bryce has a fault, it leans to virtue's side. We should describe it as over impartiality, too great a desire to be fair and just. It is absurd, perhaps, to quarrel with a trait which is at the same time what makes the author what he is; but the reader, with his inherited simian propensities, sometimes misses a little malice. There is no malice here, no foible even, on which we can put our finger. Probably in the end we shall have to admit that the defect is in us, and not in the book.

The Complete Writings of Walt Whitman. Issued under the editorial supervision of his Literary Executors, Richard Maurice Bucke, Thomas B. Harned, and Horace L. Traubel. With additional bibliographical and critical material prepared by Oscar Lovell Triggs, Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This edition of Walt Whitman's writings may truly be said to surpass, at several points, all recent reproductions of the *opera omnia* of any single author—first, in its mechanical execution; and, secondly, in that absolutely fearless candor which only the profoundest faith in their author can secure for editors. This faith is apt to be severely tested where so many successive versions of individual poems have been published as in Whitman's case; and the present editors do not shrink from inserting not only the details of every change, but even the unprinted variations which have hitherto existed in manuscript only. This becomes the more interesting from the fact that not a few of these alterations were made in apparent recognition of those criticisms on the score of impropriety—or, as Emerson called it, "priapism"—which so abounded in Whitman's earlier days, and to which he sometimes, though rarely, seems to have paid a discreet deference. (See 'Leaves of Grass,' iii., 107, 122, 191, etc.)

But, apart from this, it is a thing always very desirable, especially in dealing with a peculiarly original and innovating poet, to know the successive phases and forms of his literary productions, although in the case of most poets this might seem to the author himself very undesirable, since he usually prefers to preserve the final form and no other. It also throws a vast responsibility on the editor, lest he be led, like some of the early editors of Coleridge, to confuse hopelessly note-books and extract-books, and thus make his poet seem a plagiarist when he is not. Such mishaps are not quite wanting in this case, as where Walt Whitman had written down in his note-book, as a substitute for a poor version of Uhland's greatest poem, the last verse of Sarah Austen's exquisite translation, of which he alters one word only, here italicized:

> Take, O boatman, thrice thy fee—
> Take, I give it willingly;
> For, *unwittingly* to thee,
> Spirits twain have crossed with me."

This verse the editor here attributes to Whitman himself ('Leaves of Grass,' iii., 282). We have found, however, no companion instance of inaccuracy, which is saying a great deal for a work so difficult.

In other respects, the editors have shown

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excellent judgment in letting Whitman speak everywhere for himself, whether in his strength or in his weakness; and this is especially to be noticed when they deal with those occasional bursts of fine humility which are too rarely visible in the writings of this remarkable man. After saying to us, in his "Backward Glance," that "it is certain that a poetry of absolute faith and equality for the use of the democratic masses never was," Whitman goes on with this touch of manly modesty:

"And whether my friends claim it for me or not, I know well enough, too, that in respect to pictorial talent, dramatic situations, and especially in verbal melody and all the conventional technique of poetry, not only the divine works that to-day stand ahead in the world's reading, but dozens more, transcend (some of them immeasurably transcend) all I have done, or could do" ('Leaves of Grass,' III., 49, 50).

Such an outburst of courageous frankness atones for a multitude of sins.

Shakspere and his Forerunners. By Sidney Lanier. In two volumes. Doubleday, Page & Co.

In this book are printed for the first time lectures delivered more than twenty-two years ago. They are presented not merely in substance, but almost exactly, as they were written, and yet the book is pervaded by a charm which almost wiles one into ignoring its defects and shortcomings. The preface, page vii., speaks of the author's idea of Shakspere as definite and vital. This seems entirely true. Hastily prepared as the manuscript undoubtedly was, the lectures were clearly built up around a live and well-defined conception. In this, in the author's earnestness, in his fervid enthusiasm, in his occasional witcheries of expression, the value of the book consists, rather than in any breadth of scholarship, depth of insight, or cogent marshalling of facts into well-massed demonstrations. The proof-reading is not impeccable; witness "inn" for "iuu" twice (I., 102); "heofourices" for "heofonrices" (I., 161); 'Εκατογπάφια far 'Εκατομπάθια (I., 200); "system" for "extreme" (II., 8); "tunes" for "words" (II., 14, line 4). The make-up of the book is handsome, and the editing generally good, but the fine full-page illustrations are seldom inserted to face the text which they often fail to illustrate. The print called "Shakspere's House at Stratford" (II., 74) is apparently from a very bad picture antedating the invention of photography. The book would have been improved had the editors omitted I., 50-52, 132-136, and most of II., 67-72, and of the conclusion, II., 312-329; the two former, expositions of Anglo-Saxon words, are of little value or interest; the two latter are largely dry recapitulations.

The hastiness of the original writing appears in some errors which the author, had he lived, might have removed. We note (I., 111) the not wholly correct exposition of the steps giving the present meaning of "gossip"; the all too common misuse (I., 216) of the phrase "that ilk"; the statement (I., 297) that the mystery play had to do with matters mysterious; the objection (II., 43) to the accepted derivation of "madrigal," and the suggestion of one altogether absurd. The construing of a passage of Beowulf (I., 50-52) is somewhat infelicitous. So also are the formulas and tabulations appearing frequently, as I., 25, 27, 42; II., 247, 248, 249, 253, 254. We find somewhat irritating the species of linguistic chauvinism manifested in I., 160, 161. We approve the author's admiration for the English language, but the expression is scarcely judicious. The skeleton of fiction running through chapters xvi.-xviii. is likewise rather irritating than otherwise. In II., 279-289, Lanier certainly fails to show or even to make it seem probable that Greene was the writer travestied in the anti-masque of the artisans in "A Midsummer Night's Dream."

Chapter i., on the formal side of poetry, is left hanging in the air, as it were; for the matter to which, as originally delivered, it led up is not included in this book, but was reworked into the author's 'Science of English Verse.' Chapters xi. and xii., on the pronunciation of Shakspere's time, probably very effective in lectures and well judged for the audience to which they were addressed, are ill fitted to be read, and can bestow very little information and hardly any stimulus of interest upon even the rawest neophyte. Chapters xvi., xvii., and xviii. are entitled "The Domestic Life of Shakspere's Time," yet they really tell little or nothing about domestic life. They do set forth, by examples drawn from literature, something of the diversions of high and low, and of the books, sermons, comedies, and tragedies of the time. Chapter iv., on some birds of English poetry, is a very slight performance. In it, more forcibly than in any other part of the book, we are reminded of the lapse of time since the matter of the book was composed. It was then still possible for a scholar to believe in Sir John Mandeville as a real person, and in the book which goes by his name as reflecting the experience of actual travel in the East.

Thus far in dispraise. More welcome is the opportunity to point out the attractions of the work. Chapters xx. and xxi., on the metrical tests for the order of composition of Shakspere's plays, are excellently well done, and present the subject almost as well as if written when printed. Chapter xix., on the doctors of Shakspere's time, is a pleasant, rambling discourse, informing and agreeable. Chapters v. and vi., on women and wives as exhibited in earlier English poetry, evince more than a little originality of view and clearness of insight. In chapters vii.-x., on sonnets and sonneteers, the author so warms with the congeniality of his subject that his enthusiasm communicates itself to the reader and quite carries one away. Still more is this true of chapters xiii.-xiv., on the music of Shakspere's time. All the musician, all the poet in the author come forward together to this theme, and the result is an absorbing monograph, full of information and very entertaining. Chapter ii., on the supernatural in early English and Shakspere, and chapter iii., on Nature in Early English and Shakspere, are delightfully well done. The selections taken to illustrate the points made are apparently fragmentary in respect to English literature as a whole, and seemingly chosen haphazard and hastily; yet the author manages in these chapters especially, and also elsewhere in the book, to weave his examples into a discourse which gives a lively and pleasing impression of the whole development of English thought and expression. Best of all are chapters xxii.-xxiv. They form a convincing exposition of the coördinate development of Shakspere as a metrist, a playwright, a poet, and a man; exhibit the author at his best, and are worthy of more than one reading.

Original and striking utterances in the book are not few. For instance, take what is said (I., 152) of Griselda's husband, and of Lear; or (I., 165) Lanier's objection that Chaucer's language, a hodge-podge of worn-down English words mixed with unassimilated French, should by no means be called "English undefiled"; or the dictum (I., 214) that the Elizabethans were diffuse, but diffuse in ideas, never merely diffuse in words; or, again, the distinction drawn (I., 298) between truth and reality; or yet again, the valuation (II., 212) of "Measure for Measure." And there are many felicities of expression.

The fulness of the table of contents does not excuse the absence of an index.

Unitarianism in America: A History of its Origin and Development. By George Willis Cooke. Boston: American Unitarian Association.

Heretofore, the main haunt of Mr. Cooke's literary interest has been that of New England Transcendentalism, though he has written excellent handbooks of Browning and George Eliot. It was no doubt the patient elaboration of these books, together with his 'Emerson,' 'Curtis at Brook Farm,' 'John S. Dwight,' and others, that selected him for this official history of the Unitarian body. Up to the fifth chapter it is the history of a theological and religious evolution; from thence onward it deals for the most part with different aspects of Unitarian organized activity, with a parting word on "The Future of Unitarianism," which certainly does not err on the side of too sanguine expectations.

The introduction, "English Sources of American Unitarianism," has a quite general character, allying the Unitarian origins with the Renaissance, the Reformation, and English tendencies towards toleration and rationalism. The following chapter indicates the forces that from the very beginning of the New England theocracy made for increasing liberality in church government and belief. Next we have "The Growth of Democracy in the Churches," Arminianism its theological concomitant, with the Great Awakening for its most striking incident—in the event, a significant awakening of such opposition as that of Chauncy and Mayhew. Mayhew is set down as the first pronounced Unitarian, though there were many tending to his position. The names of fifty ministers opposed to the methods of Whitefield are given. Nevertheless, there was, as the fourth chapter relates, a reactionary revival in the last decade of the eighteenth century, and it was in opposition to the dogmatic and exclusive temper of this revival that the Unitarian movement gathered head from the beginning of the nineteenth century for thirty years, in the course of which period more than a hundred churches in New England were aligned upon the liberal side, including twenty of the first twenty-five organized in Massachusetts, with the Church of the Pilgrim Fathers in the lead. Here was virtually, though not in its ultimate appearance, a secession of the exclusive orthodox dogmatists from the Congregational body, in defiance of its original spirit.

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A chapter on the "Period of Controversy" emphasizes less than is common the crucial events of 1815 and Channing's contribution to the controversy on its upper side. We have an exact account of the various agencies through which the new movement expressed its thought and spirit, with a chapter devoted to the origin and early course of the American Unitarian Association. This chapter, but the whole book in a hardly inferior degree, is a monument to Mr. Cooke's careful diligence in the collection of material and to his judicious use of it. The extreme difficulty of giving such a multitude of details an agreeable literary form is obvious, but Mr. Cooke's success in this respect is more conspicuous than we should have imagined possible. One of the most engaging incidents of this chapter is Emerson's service (1827) as missionary of the new organization on the Connecticut River, illustrated by one of his letters detailing his experience.

Mr. Cooke's choice of a title for his next chapter, "The Period of Radicalism," is hardly justified by its contents. The period described was for the main body and large majority of Unitarians their period of ultra conservatism, near the end of it Freeman Clarke describing them aptly as "a discouraged denomination." Radicalism there was, but it was radicalism in a minority and under ban. Mr. Cooke's studies heretofore had fitted him peculiarly for the treatment of this aspect of the Unitarian development, but, as if modestly withdrawing from a field so much his own, he barely touches it, possibly because disinclined to garner where he has already reaped. What is certain is that two of the most significant moments of the Unitarian history, Emerson's Divinity School Address of 1838, with its antecedents and consequents, and Parker's South Boston sermon of 1841, are passed over in silence, nor is there more than the most casual allusion to the controversy of which these events were the elliptical centres. That no fear was here of opening old wounds we have the proof in Mr. Cooke's frank dealing with subsequent controversies that raged with extreme violence, and whose ashes are not yet perfectly cold. As touching these his book is an eirenicon, conceived in a spirit of admirable fairness to those most concerned, while he does not conceal his own satisfaction in the final outcome of each new controversy which made "the bounds of freedom wider yet."

The "denominational awakening" of 1865 was clearly a product of the superabundance of energy engendered by the civil war, finding preëminent embodiment in Dr. Henry W. Bellows, of whom Mr. Cooke writes with more warmth of admiration than of any other of the multitude of *dramatis personæ* that crowd his stage. Tuckerman's "Ministry at Large" has no more space than it deserves in a proportion where there are many pressing claims. The Sunday-school work is one of these; others are the Women's Alliance and Post-office Mission, agencies that from small beginnings have attained to a remarkable efficiency and scope. Mr. Dall's noble work in India and that of Mr. MacCauley in Japan have both honorable mention. Then come a series of chapters which tax the resources of Mr. Cooke's Unitarian restraint and modesty to a degree that in the upshot more commends his prudence than convicts him of too much complacency. If there is an exception to this ruling it is the anti-slavery part of the chapter on "Unitarians and Reforms." One gets a less favorable impression from Dr. Channing's letters and from such an event as the refusal of his church to him for a memorial service of Dr. Follen, his high-minded anti-slavery friend. On the other hand, Mr. Cooke is able to quote the praise awarded by Samuel J. May to his co-religionists. The fact is, they did better as time went on, and it was easier to do better; also, that the personal sympathy with the anti-slavery movement was always in advance of that expressed in the pulpit and in denominational action. The unsympathetic reader will probably discover in Mr. Cooke's chapters, "Unitarian Philanthropies," "Unitarian Men and Women," and "Unitarianism and Literature," a disposition on his part to "claim everything in sight"; but seldom or never does he gather anything that can easily slip through the meshes of his net. Civil Service Reform, with the Unitarians Sumner, Jenckes, and Curtis for its founders (Bellows might have been added), is paralleled by many other lines of social help, and on that of literature Mr. Cooke is able to quote Prof. Barrett Wendell: "Almost everybody who attained literary distinction in New England during the nineteenth century was either a Unitarian or closely associated with Unitarian influences." For the inheritors of this great renown there remains the proverb that dead men's shoes soon wear out, and they cannot bestir themselves too eagerly if they are hereafter to be worthy of such high descent.

Symphonics and their Meaning. By Philip H. Goepp. Second Series. Lippincott. Pp. 498.

Mr. Goepp is an enthusiast who believes that music tells a message clearer, richer, nobler, than one may hope from prose or even verse. A few years ago he wrote a book in which he tried to find and describe "the mystery of symphonies." The present volume is an extension of his analytical method and completes his survey of classic symphonies. Mozart is represented by one work, Beethoven by six (including the Pastoral and the Ninth), Schumann by two, Mendelssohn by one, Raff by three, Brahms by three. A chapter is also devoted to Liszt, Tchaikovsky, and R. Strauss, and the appendix briefly considers symphonies by Berlioz, Gade, Goetz, Gilchrist, and Goldmark. A footnote explains that the omission of the symphonies of Americans like Paine and Chadwick is due not to a lack of good will, but a lack of space. However, so far as that goes, Raff's "Winter" symphony and Gade's B flat might have been spared; nor were Beethoven's first two symphonies quite worth as much as fifty-two pages, for they were written before the composer had "found himself." Our author, too, is often diffuse. The substance of his book might have been easily condensed into half its number of pages. Apart from this, there can be nothing but praise for it. It is sympathetic, thorough, lucid; and the author fortunately realized that the only way to make such a book intelligible and useful was by giving illustrations in musical type on nearly every page.

There are Germans who still hold Mozart's symphonic works to be the *ne plus ultra* of art; some of them consider not only the romantic composers, but even Beethoven, a descent from this sublime pinnacle. But Mr. Goepp, although in the main a conservative, understands and clearly hints at the line of progress made since Mozart. In his time and Haydn's an adagio meant not so much a sad mood as "merely a decent suppression of spirits for ceremony's sake." "In those days the main business of music was to cheer and amuse"; in Beethoven it began to seek emotional utterance in all its phases. His symphonies mark the modern fondness for strong and extreme emotions. Not only are his adagios unsurpassed, but he also created the frolicsome scherzo, to supplant the languid minuet of Haydn and Mozart. Oddly enough, in his analysis of Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, Mr. Goepp makes no mention of the important quarrel between the Mendelssohnians and the Wagnerites in regard to the *tempi* of the middle movements.

It is pleasant to find a good word for Raff, whose "Lenore" and "Forest" symphonies have fallen into premature neglect. In regard to pictorial or programme music, Mr. Goepp justly points out that Raff "solved its problem successfully as to symphonies, achieving here what Mendelssohn reached only in the overture." On the other hand, he gives Raff too much honor when he intimates that "some of the melodic, harmonic, and dramatic manner that is all attributed to Wagner is quite distinctively Raff's own." It is true that, as he points out, Raff's Forest Symphony was written nine years before the Nibelung's Ring was first heard in public; but he forgets that "Tristan" was produced in 1865, four years before that symphony; and Raff was a collaborator of both Wagner and Liszt. In an American book it might not have been out of place to mention that Raff was the teacher of Edward MacDowell. With touching modesty and keen appreciation of budding genius, he said to his pupil, shortly before his death: "Your music will be famous when mine is forgotten."

For one who is so great an admirer of Brahms as Mr. Goepp, it is surprising to find him so tolerant of Liszt. True, he refers to a "lack of strong-knit musical structure in Liszt"—which is absurd, as the symphonic poem invented by him is much more logical and coherent in structure than the classical symphony with its four detached and unrelated movements. But the author reads the symptoms of the times correctly as regards the growing valuation of Liszt's music: "There are increasing signs that Liszt was the true author of much of modern vein that has been ascribed to others who merely followed in his wake."

The House of Seleucus. By Edwyn Robert Bevan. 2 vols., with plates and maps. London: Edward Arnold. 1902.

The field of Hellenistic history has been little cultivated. Most historians of Greece, inspired by love for free Hellas or for classical literature and archæology, or attracted by the relative abundance of historical material, have confined their labor to the period ending with the death of Alexander. Thirlwall's 'History of Greece,' however, oversteps this landmark, to treat the Hellenistic age in a series of

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chapters which are admirable for the time when they were written; and more recently Mahaffy, especially by his 'Greek Life and Thought,' has awakened an interest in certain aspects of the same age. These were almost the only important works composed in English which had to do with the political history or the civilization of the period. The Germans have paid more attention to the subject. J. G. Droysen devoted his historical genius to the preparation of a monumental work, 'Geschichte des Hellenismus' (2 vols., 1836-43), which is practically a history of the civilized world for the period which it treats. Holm covers the ground more briefly in his excellent History of Greece, now translated into English; and at present two distinguished German scholars—Niese in his 'Geschichte der griechischen und makedonischen Staaten,' and Kaerst in his 'Geschichte des hellenistischen Zeitalters'—are presenting detailed accounts of the Hellenistic age from modern points of view.

Mr. Bevan's work differs from those named in applying itself to the thorough treatment of a single Hellenistic kingdom. In the preface he acknowledges his indebtedness to earlier laborers in the field. "One's obligations to Droysen and Niese are, of course, so constant and extensive that they must in a majority of cases be taken for granted; it is where one's own conclusions do not altogether tally on some point that they are in many cases referred to—a circumstance which may give the work of a younger writer an appearance of presumption which is far from the truth." In this respect the author has followed the English rather than the German custom. He certainly deserves full credit for independence of judgment; but could he not have better satisfied the scholarly reader by giving continuous references to his modern as well as his ancient authorities? This method would have greatly facilitated the study of the subject.

The author's task has been difficult. Most of the ancient authorities for the period lived ages after the events which they describe, and are generally uncritical and shallow. The material is not only inferior in quality, but scant and fragmentary; it leaves wide gaps at most important crises, and rarely affords a glimpse of the political organization and administration, the social and intellectual life, and the economic condition of the empire (subjects of the greatest interest to the serious modern reader), but presents instead a dreary maze of unintelligible wars. Mr. Bevan has supplemented the scant literary sources by the use of coins and inscriptions, and by attention to the physical conditions and the ethnography of the Seleucid empire. Chapter ii. is, accordingly, a brief but valuable presentation of "The Physical Environment," in which the author summarizes the geographical and racial character of the nearer East; and in the course of the work entire chapters are devoted to the physical features and the population of the various provinces in relation to the empire as a whole. Although these parts of his history will doubtless prove highly instructive, they lack the freshness of interest which one might expect of a writer who has himself visited the countries he describes. It is to be regretted, too, that throughout the narrative the author has not brought out more boldly the relation of the political events to the physical environment. Perhaps the most interesting chapters are the first, "Hellenism in the East," and the last, "Government, Court, and Army." The author's analysis of Hellenism is remarkably keen and thorough. It is his great merit never to lose sight of the truth that in the Seleucid court and kings he has to do with Greeks, and that his theme is Greek civilization on Asiatic soil. This idea gives the work unity and a definite purpose. As to the importance of the Seleucid government in universal history he says:

"We have tried to get some idea in outline of the constitution of the Seleucid realm. To do so is interesting, not so much as calling up the picture of things long passed away, but as studying a phase in the tradition which has come down to us. For when Rome became an Empire with a monarchic court and system, it followed to a large extent, both in its inner principles and its external forms, the Greek kingdoms which it superseded. A real continuity of tradition bound the court and government of the Cæsars to the court and government of Seleucid and Ptolemy, and the tradition sanctioned by the authority and majesty of the Roman name continued as a sort of ideal in the Middle Ages, shaping institutions which in their turn have gone to make the modern world."

The author shows little disposition to generalize, and still less dramatic power. His narrative is sober, unimaginative, and clear, designed to instruct rather than to stimulate or entertain. The work seems to be in a high degree trustworthy, and may be earnestly recommended to those who wish to study the period. It comes, too, most opportunely, as recent international events have directed the attention of the world to Asia.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barbour, A. M. At the Time Appointed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Benson, L. F. Studies of Familiar Hymns. Philadelphia: The Westminster Press.
Burney, C. F. Notes of the Hebrew Text of the Book of Kings. Henry Frowde. $4.75.
Cymbeline. The Works of Shakespeare. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Daskam, Josephine. Middle Aged Love Stories. Scribners. $1.25.
Dauchy & Company's Newspaper Catalogue, 1903. Dauchy & Co.
Dare, Dalton. Dainty Devils. William H. Young & Co.
Griffith, J. P. C. The Care of the Baby. New ed. W. B. Saunders & Co. $1.50.
Hill, Lucille E. Athletics and Out-Door Sports for Women. By several writers. Macmillan.
McCabe, Joseph. Church Discipline. London: Duckworth & Co. 3s.
Monroe, Harriet E. Washington: Its Sights and Insights. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Moore, George. The Untilled Field. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Vol. VII. (Onomastical-Outing). Henry Frowde.
Mus-Arnolt, W. A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language. Part 13. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Old Squire: The Romance of a Black Virginian. Macmillan. $1.50.
Parkhurst, H. E. Trees, Shrubs, and Vines of the Northeastern United States. Scribners. $1.50.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. The Adventures of Harry Revel. Scribners. $1.50.
Shakspere, William. Love's Labor Lost. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Sonnichsen, Albert. Deep-Sea Vagabonds. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Stevenson, R. L. Memories and Portraits. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co.
Stoney, Emily A. M. Practical Points in Nursing for Nurses in Private Practice. New ed. W. B. Saunders & Co. $1.75.

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